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THE MUSEUM,

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English Journal of Education.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF THE EDUCATION QUESTION.



It has of late been often remarked, that this country is just now experiencing a reaction in the matter of popular education. And it must be confessed that in some respects there is the appearance of it. A change almost revolutionary in its character has been introduced into the system in operation. Some thirty years ago the Government recognised the obligation to give direct encouragement and assistance to private and local efforts for the education of the people. Liberal grants of money were offered on fair and practicable conditions. Individual benevolence was stimulated; schools were built; subscriptions for their support were collected; teachers were sought for, trained more or less effectively, and set to work in all parts of the country. The public grant grew larger year by year, the educational movement became every year more systematic, its machinery more complicated, its operations more extended and ambitious. School accommodation and school attendance kept increasing *pari passu*; pupil teachers were called into being, and multiplied exceedingly; school inspectors travelled by every railway and visited every town; training colleges rose amidst the smoke and din of the metropolis, or beneath the shadow of provincial cathedrals; they were in due time filled with Queen's Scholars maintained at the expense of Government, and taught by lecturers whom the Government generously subsidised. These were the palmy days of education. A very general interest was felt in the subject. The landed gentry and the great mill-owners and manufacturers accepted their

responsibilities, and came forward to provide their dependents with the means of instruction. The clergy in most cases took the matter up warmly, and made very great sacrifices for the sake of it. Education became the fashion, and was discussed not only in the haunts of politicians and at gatherings of social reformers, but by the gay assemblages in London drawing-rooms, and amidst the hospitalities of country houses. Still public feeling was not unanimous on the subject. A few, possessed with the spirit of uncompromising Toryism, denounced the movement altogether, as subversive of the old social distinctions, likely to interfere with the supply of domestic servants, and generally unfavourable to that lowly and reverent ordering to betters, which is a prominent feature of the old-fashioned Tory Eutopia. Many, again, less intolerant of social change, and willing to admit the right of the people to education, distrusted for various reasons the particular system in operation. Some thought it too secular; others, not secular enough. To some it was an objection, that what was called the "denominational principle" was recognised; to others, that that principle was not more strictly enforced in the adoption of management clauses and the assignment of public grants. There were some who complained of the outlay of public money, and doubted whether the country was getting an adequate return; there were others, again, who were anxious to draw more largely on the national funds, and to bring about the establishment of a more thoroughly national system. Out of all the objections raised, doubts started, and plans recommended, came the famous Royal Com-

mission of 1858. The members of that Commission did their work zealously and conscientiously, sparing no pains to collect information, and carefully and judiciously setting forth the materials placed at their disposal, and the facts which they believed themselves to have elicited. The recommendations which they ventured to make certainly did not meet with any very great amount of attention, and very few persons were disposed to advocate their adoption. It is not impossible, however, that at some future day the system which they proposed may find favour with the public and form the basis of legislation. Meantime, as in some degree the result of their Report, certain impressions appeared to become widely prevalent in reference to the Privy Council system of National Education. These were, a belief in the extravagance and complication of that system, a suspicion of its efficiency as tested by results, and a dislike of the pretentious character of the education which it promoted. That these impressions were not without some foundation we must all be ready to confess. The whole amount of money annually expended by the State for educational purposes was not certainly very enormous, if the national revenue and the national resources be considered. But, owing to the conditions on which grants were made, the sums received by many particular schools were out of all proportion to the amount of good done by these schools, as compared with other schools receiving little or no assistance from the Parliamentary Fund. Then again the Commissioners made it appear that, with all the elaborate machinery at work, the most elementary and essential branches of instruction were very imperfectly taught; or at all events, from some cause or other, very partially learnt. Yet, once more, those who had been in the habit of maintaining that the system was too ambitious; who had ridiculed the notion of teaching Physical Geography and Experimental Chemistry in National Schools; who had severely criticised the papers on Church History, Mathematics, and Literature set at the Government Examinations, found their objections in some measure justified by the tenor of the Commissioners' Report. The announcement of the Government that they intended to take action on that Report, prevented the introduction into Parliament of any private educational schemes. In due time appeared the first draught of a Revised Code, and the excitement which it produced, as soon as those interested in the matter became alive to the nature of its provisions, will not speedily be forgotten. The agitation which arose was not, however, the mere passionate outbreak of those who thought their craft was in danger, and their

gains likely to be diminished or altogether taken away. Had it been so, it might have been disregarded. But it was, in a considerable degree, the protest of the true and staunch friends of popular education, of those who believed that the changes were too revolutionary, and would in very many cases impair the efficiency of schools and do injury to the cause of education. The consequence, therefore, was, that important modifications were successfully pressed on the Vice-President of the Council in the House of Commons, and we are now governed in educational matters by what has been called a Re-revised Code. It does not belong to our present object minutely to discuss the merits or defects of that Code. Something, however, must be said with regard to the probable effects of its operation. The great body of its opponents, then, condemn it alike on financial and on educational grounds. From the very first, they strongly insisted that it would seriously diminish the amount received out of the public grant by most of the schools under inspection. They asserted, moreover, that under its operation the school income would not only be smaller, but would be more precarious, and would be affected by a variety of probable or possible contingencies. It is likely that their anticipations will, in this respect, to a considerable extent be realised. So far as the test has been applied, the result has been—in the majority of cases—a decrease in the annual grant obtained by the schools. Instances to the contrary have come under our notice; but so far, we are constrained to admit, they are exceptional. Now in some cases the revenue derived from Government could very well bear curtailment, but we are afraid that the heaviest losses will generally fall where they can least easily be borne. Moreover, it is certainly true that the arrangement which makes so large a proportion of the income dependent on the results of a single day's examination and inspection, does introduce into the system an element of precariousness and embarrassment. It is possible that some have made too much of this objection, but still it is by no means absurd or unfounded; and the disadvantage complained of might, at a very trifling cost, and without any departure from the principles of the Code, be materially alleviated. For instance, as a loss must always be sustained through the unavoidable absence of some of those who are to be presented for examination before the Inspector, it would not be unreasonable to ask that the grant should be payable on a per-centage of the absentees, equal to, or perhaps somewhat less than, the per-centage of candidates actually passed by the Examiner. But if the evil most seriously dreaded from the operations

of the Revised Code is the loss of revenue to the schools, the objection most prominently put forward is the effect which it is thought likely to have on the quality of the education given. In this respect its *reactionary* character has been most strongly insisted on. It has been denounced as a literal return to weak and beggarly elements, and the spirit which devised it is regarded as apostasy from higher and more advanced views on the educational question. But in this respect we think that the Revised Code has hardly met with fair treatment. In making Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic the subjects through which the Government grant was to be obtained, the authorities of the Council Office never meant to lower the standard of national education, or to limit the instruction of the pupils to those three branches of learning exclusively.

They knew that these subjects were essential, and that they, at all events, ought to be thoroughly taught in the schools to all comers, whatever else was or was not included in the programme. They felt also that the domain of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic was the neutral ground of education, where they could act most freely and with the least suspicion of partiality. They decided, therefore, in co-operating with school managers, to connect the assistance which they were prepared to give as closely as possible with efficiency in those essential, elementary, unsectarian subjects. But they did not consider that they were thereby constituting them the *ne plus ultra* of school acquirement. They regarded themselves as simply providing for one very important department, and they believed that other departments might safely be left—especially if considered of equal or greater importance—to the supervision of those who were locally interested in the school, and who contributed a large proportion of the funds for its support. To say that the Government arrangements will override all other considerations, and exclusively determine the character of the school work, is surely to make the mathematical mistake of supposing that a part is equal to the whole; or the moral one, of imputing venality to school managers, and of regarding them as capable of selling the intellectual birthright of their scholars for a mess of pottage, and ready, as it were, *propter vilam, vicendi perdere causas*.

We are not able, therefore, to agree with those who look upon the Revised Code as simply and purely the result of a reactionary feeling. Some doubt, indeed, may well be entertained respecting the views and sympathies of the Vice-President of the Council himself; and while admitting his energy and ability, and cordially admiring the courage with which he met all attacks upon his

measures, and the gallant front he shewed to all his foes, we are constrained to express our regret that he did his spiriting so urgently, and drove his chariot so ruthlessly over the necks of that great body of managers and teachers whom he ought to have regarded as fellow-workers and friends, but whom he chose unhappily to treat as antagonists, impostors, and sturdy beggars.

Still we do not think that the triumph of the Revised Code is to be looked upon as any evidence of reaction, properly so called, on the matter of education. It does not prove the existence of a general feeling that too much had been done for the intellectual advancement of the people. It furnishes no ground for supposing that there exists any widely-spread jealousy with respect to the education of the working classes. That in some quarters such jealousy is entertained is true enough; and all who entertain it undoubtedly gave in their adhesion to the Revised Code, because it had something of the appearance of a retrograde movement. But then, on the other hand, the new measure received the support of some of the most zealous friends of popular education, who believed that they saw in it a more efficient guarantee for the diffusion, amongst the greatest possible number, of the greatest possible mastery over the indispensable keys of knowledge.

And that this result will, to some extent, follow from its adoption, there is every reason to hope. Already a great impulse has been given to the cultivation of the three branches. Already the practical advantage of individual examination, in connection with inspection, is beginning to be discovered. Already there is a growing tendency in the direction of careful and thorough elementary teaching. A good deal that is objectionable may be pardoned in a measure which contributes in any fair degree to such results as these.

Moreover, the system which has been superseded was not adapted for permanency. It was in its very nature provisional, tentative, and experimental, and involving too much of the principle of protection and bounty. It rather tended to encourage what was showy and superficial, and it left too many choices open to indolence, extravagance, and inefficiency. At the outset its arrangements were well suited to foster a new movement, and to make straight and easy the path of those who were endeavouring in the face of great difficulties to improve the education of the country. But, undoubtedly, the time had come for a revision, and if the spirit in which it has been carried out is not altogether satisfactory, yet the direction which it has taken must not be denounced as essentially reactionary, or absolutely wrong.

Something, indeed, there was in it of a tendency towards financial retrenchment, caught from the temper which was shewing itself in reference to national expenditure generally; but in other respects it took a good deal of its character from the experiences of some twenty years of educational progress. Those twenty years have taught us some facts that were not allowed for in the schemes of the first promoters of national education. We understand better than they did the effect of irregular attendance, and of the withdrawal of the children from school at a very early age. Feeling unhappily compelled to recognise these as normal conditions of popular education, and seeing no chance of finding any effective remedy for them, we have no alternative but to adapt our educational measures to the state of things which they involve. And in doing this, it becomes necessary to limit very materially our aims, and to narrow the range of subjects which we venture to submit to the notice of the rising generation of operatives and peasants.

Now the tenor of the Revised Code certainly harmonizes with these views; and while, under the former regime, the tendency was to impart to school children as much and as varied information as possible, the feeling now is mainly to provide that they shall, during their brief school-stay, be furnished as thoroughly as possible with those appliances which will enable them hereafter to acquire information for themselves.

This much we feel bound to say, as a matter of simple justice to the Revised Code; but, having said it, we should be very sorry to leave on the minds of our readers the impression that we are willing to accept this Code as a final measure, or to consider the system of which it is the exponent and statute-book, as really adequate to the wants of the country, or as embodying a comprehensive scheme of national education. The most unhappy feature of the recent changes is the effect they had on the minds of many of those most interested in the work of education. In this respect it must be admitted, that if the New Code was not itself the consequence of a reaction against education on the part of its authors, it has certainly been in some sense the cause of it elsewhere. In many cases, school managers were led, by their fear of financial embarrassments, to retrench expenditure in such a way as to endanger the efficiency of their schools. Some, again, withdrew altogether from Government connection, or at least seriously contemplated such a step. Others, indignant at what appeared to them an arbitrary *coup d'état*, conceived a disgust towards the whole subject of education, and threatened to give up all concern

for it. This natural ebullition of feeling on the part of managers has, by this time, in a great degree calmed down, and they are, perhaps, already beginning to discover some elements in the New Code which may tend to make them better satisfied with its provisions. But teachers will not be so easily reconciled to the change. The demonstration which they made when the obnoxious minute was first issued, was perhaps rather too clamorous and violent. A few of their number brought discredit on the body by their extravagance and indiscretion, and the consequence was, that they lost some of the sympathy and support to which they were really entitled. For, undoubtedly, theirs was a hard case. They were, at a very short notice, deprived of emoluments which they certainly had every reason to expect would be guaranteed to them, so long as they did officially the work to which the promise of these emoluments had led them to devote themselves. Disregard of vested interests is no usual fault of our Government; and the teachers of elementary schools may claim the unenviable distinction, of being almost the only body of persons receiving payment from the State who have ever, as regards their pecuniary relations, been handled in so trenchant and unceremonious a way.

But they complain, and not without some foundation, that "insult was added to injury." Assuredly they met with rough treatment in more than one quarter, and were not very generously or courteously dealt with by the Vice-President himself in his long and elaborate orations in the House of Commons. Now the effect of all this is likely to be somewhat serious. Nothing can be more fatal to the interests of education than anything that is a heavy blow and great discouragement to teachers. For the very life of education is in the teacher: codes, systems, grants, inspections, certificates, all the machinery of the Council Office, are but dead things without the animating presence of the patient, earnest, active, sympathising, schoolmaster or schoolmistress. And it cannot be doubted that, through what has occurred, teachers have lost a good deal of faith, and hope, and heart. Rightly or wrongly, their confidence in the Privy Council administration has been shaken. They look upon their profession as one which involves a good deal of self-sacrifice, and has few advantages to offer. Some have already abandoned it; and though the difficulty of finding any other kind of employment, and a conscious want of fitness for ordinary business, may compel the great majority to remain where they are, yet the effects of agitation and discontent will not speedily disappear.

Now if the supply of teachers should fail, or if only an inferior quality of teachers should be available, the educational movement will at once become unmistakeably retrogressive.

And this really seems to us the chief danger of the present crisis. It is not the financial changes about to be introduced into the training colleges that we fear. These are in themselves reasonable enough. It is not the lowering of the standard in the certificate examinations, or even the rapid decrease in the number of pupil-teachers that we think likely to cause the mischief we anticipate. It is the want of substantial inducements to attract men of ability, energy, and high character, to the work of National Education, which seems to us to threaten future embarrassment, and a suspension or abatement of progress. If the profession of an elementary school teacher could be made really a desirable one; if starting even with very moderate remuneration, it seemed a progressive increase of income; if it had any prizes to attract, any prospects to encourage; if it gave those who followed it a recognised social position, and the chances of a provision for old age: there would be no difficulty about the supply of teachers, and no necessity for all those expedients by which the Committee of Council have hitherto kept up that supply. As it is, there is just now a good deal of apprehension with respect to the future fate of training schools. It is feared by many that they may be involved in financial embarrassment on the one hand, and may find it difficult to secure a sufficiency of pupils on the other. On the first head there ought not, we think, to be much ground for anxiety or alarm. The Revised Code has indeed been supplemented by a Minute which not only limits the grants to training schools to 75 per cent. of the expenditure, but also makes them dependent on certain contingencies over which the managers have no direct or absolute control. Still there seems to be little doubt that, with proper precautions and guarantees, a popular and successful institution will be able to secure the per-centage which the Privy Council is prepared to give; and if these Institutions are to preserve their independent character, and to continue under local management at all, it must at once be admitted that one-fourth of the whole annual expenditure is not an exorbitant proportion to require at the hands of those locally interested. It was in fact unreasonable to expect that the Government would go on, year after year, paying 90 per cent. of the cost of institutions, the management and proprietorship of which belonged to Incorporated Societies, Diocesan Boards, or Religious Communities. There was no alternative but either to apportion the charges somewhat

more equitably, or to convert the colleges, with all their officers and appliances, into Government institutions. The latter is an arrangement in which few of the local supporters would be ready to acquiesce, and therefore it is that very little opposition has been raised to the other alternative.

Financially, then, we see no great reason to fear for the future of the training colleges. Where increased local effort is found necessary, increased local interest will be excited; and thus it may happen that the institution will come to be more closely bound up with the educational work of the district in which it is situated, and to be recognised as the head quarters of the great local militia of education.

But the question of the supply of students is assuredly a more doubtful one. Hitherto the pupil-teacher system has been a very prolific and certain source of supply. But this source is apparently in a fair way of being to some extent cut off. Now we are inclined to think that the merits of the pupil-teacher system, regarded in the abstract, have been overrated. It is true also that the virtual assignment of young persons to the calling of teacher at so early an age, before character or aptitude could be satisfactorily ascertained, has led to the admission into the profession of a good many who are neither morally nor intellectually fit for it. We also incline to the opinion, paradoxical as it may appear, that many of those apprenticed as pupil-teachers would have made better schoolmasters and schoolmistresses if they had not been set apart for the work till they had had the opportunity of seeing a little of life through other spectacles than those of the pedagogue.

But when all has been said, the fact remains stubborn and unanswerable, that out of the body of pupil-teachers the colleges have been almost exclusively supplied with students. Some very good and promising candidates have occasionally presented themselves from other classes, but these have been few and exceptional. If, therefore, the supply of pupil-teachers should cease, or very greatly diminish, it will hereafter become a very serious consideration, where our future teachers are to be obtained.

This is, we repeat, a difficulty into which we are brought by the uninviting and comparatively unprofitable character of the teacher's vocation. We use these epithets advisedly. Teachers' salaries are considered high, but they are very far from being so, if compared with the income which intelligence, education, and good character can earn in many other callings. The position of the teacher has some advantages, but it involves a good deal of self-sacrifice, and what to some na-

tures is very disagreeable, the necessity for much deference and submission to the dictation of a superior. If, therefore, it is desired to guarantee the permanency and efficiency of the educational movement, attention must, above all things, be directed to sound and healthy methods of keeping up the supply of teachers. Make it worth a good man's while to do the work you wish to have done, and you will get good men to do it. If the office of master or mistress in an elementary school were as eligible as the ordinary Civil Service appointments,—and it surely ought to be so,—plenty of young men and women would contrive to make themselves fit to compete for it, without asking for State aid to do so. But it is not under any code or system yet put forth by authority that we can hope to see this consummation. And as little can we look for any great movement in advance for some time to come. Though we cannot believe that national education will be allowed really to droop and languish, yet we must be content to witness a period of stagnation, or at least quiescence, in educational matters. The public have become somewhat weary of the subject. The members of the House of Commons have more than once manifested a little impatience of such questions; and though in this session they may be required to submit to a few debates on points of minor importance, yet it is tolerably certain that their forbearance will not be tried by the introduction of any elaborate or comprehensive educational measure. Indeed, it is but reasonable that time should be given fairly to test the working of the Revised Code; and the postponement of further changes, even where they may be thought desirable, will be sufficiently compensated for by the accession of experience which a little longer time and an adequate trial of the new measure will supply.

But those who are really very much in earnest about the education of the people can hardly be quite satisfied with the present *status quo*. There is still far too large a per-centage of the population

unable to read or write. A considerable proportion of the children of the working classes are either not attending school at all, or attending so irregularly that the amount of education which they are receiving is inappreciable, and will never be of any practical use to them. To pass from the day-school to the night-school is still the exception rather than the rule. In fact, the difficulties connected with the establishment and carrying on of night-schools have not yet been removed or materially diminished, and, as far as we can ascertain, the provisions of the Revised Code for that end have not yet been found of much practical advantage.

Although, therefore, we are willing to wait, yet we cannot but hope that, when the hour and the man are come, we shall see a scheme of national education offered for the acceptance of the English people more thorough and comprehensive and permanent than that with which we must for the present be content. But the future benefactor who is to give this blessing to his country must be no common man, and he will have no common difficulties to encounter. His will be the hard and well nigh hopeless task of satisfying the most opposite aims, and of falling in with the most diverse opinions. He must be one who can appreciate the complex nature of the situation, and who is able to understand the virtue of compromise. He must be ready to maintain inviolate the religious element in education, and he must at the same time succeed in overcoming the jealousies and antagonisms of rival religious sects. He must place within the reach of all,—and, as far as possible, make sure that all shall receive,—sound elementary instruction, and yet he must be careful to preserve the free and local character of the educational movement, and to keep us clear of those centralised and mechanical systems which are in vogue in other countries. We may well conclude with the inquiry, which our readers will certainly make for themselves, "Where can such a man be found?" "Who is sufficient for these things?"

WHAT IS PARAPHRASE?



HERE seems to exist at present great diversity of opinion amongst educationists, practical and theoretical, as to the value of the grammatical exercise called *Paraphrase*. This is not surprising; for the diversity is quite as great as to what *Paraphrase* is. Those who condemn

Paraphrase, are frequently condemning what is not *Paraphrase* at all; and those who uphold it, as often make the same blunder, or at least fail to make those they contend with understand what they understand by *Paraphrase*. At this rate the controversy—if the diminutive logomachy deserves such a name—may go on long enough, and the

truth never be reached. Let us first understand what we are disputing about; and when our verbal differences have been settled, our real differences will probably have grown very small.

Proceeding by examples, we shall first try to clear the ground by examining the different exercises to which the name *Paraphrase* has been applied. And,

I. Paraphrase is by some supposed to mean the mere turning of verse into prose. For example, to change the order of the words in these grand lines of Milton would by not a few be accepted as a tolerable Paraphrase of them:—

“ Him the Almighty Power
Hurld’ headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition, there to dwell
In adamant chains and penal fire,
Who durst defy the Omnipotent to arms.”

The prose rendering of which would probably be:—

“The Almighty Power hurld’ him who durst defy the Omnipotent to arms, headlong flaming from the ethereal sky, with hideous ruin and combustion, down to bottomless perdition, to dwell there in adamant chains and penal fire.”

This, we apprehend, is not Paraphrase. If any one thinks that it is, and thinks that much good can come of such an exercise, we certainly make him welcome to all the hard words that have at any time been cast at the advocates of Paraphrase. It may be necessary, when a pupil comes to an intricately constructed sentence, to have it construed in the syntactical order, to ascertain whether he understands properly the inter-relation of its parts. This, however, is done merely as a test of grammatical knowledge. It is an exercise neither in thought nor in composition, under which, separately or combined, Paraphrase is supposed to fall. It is simply a transposition of words; and no other or higher name than *Transposition* should be given to the exercise. Transposition, then, is not Paraphrase.

II. Paraphrase is supposed, by others, to mean the mere superseding of some words in a sentence by others of similar meaning. For example, in a recent educational periodical, we find the following given as an example of Paraphrase:—

ORIGINAL.

I gave you the narrative of George Jones, an idle boy, and shewed you the consequences of his idleness. I shall now give you the history of Charles Bullard, a class-fellow of George. Charles was about the same age with George, and did not possess superior talents. Indeed, I doubt whether he was equal to him in natural powers of mind. But Charles was a hard student. When quite young he was always careful and diligent in school. Sometimes, when there was a very hard lesson, instead of going out to play, he would stay in to study. He had resolved that his first object should be to get his lessons well, and then he could play with a good conscience.

VARIED.

I told you the history of George Jones, a lazy boy, and shewed you the results of his indolence. I shall now give you the story of Charles Bullard, a schoolmate of George. Charles was about the same age with George, and did not possess greater abilities. In fact, I question if he was equal to him in natural powers of mind. But Charles was an industrious student. When very young he was invariably painstaking and hardworking in school. Occasionally, when there was a very difficult lesson, instead of going out to play, he would remain in to learn. He had determined that his first aim should be to learn his lessons perfectly, after which he could play with a clear conscience.

We need not say that such mere dictionary work as this is hardly entitled to the name of Paraphrase. And we do not wonder that, when put forth as such, it meets with unqualified condemnation. As an exercise in style, it can only be defended when a specimen of bad English is given for emendation. To subject a classical author to such mangling is little short of sacrilege. It is to be presumed that such writers have chosen the fittest words to express their meaning. We may therefore say with Ascham, that “such turning of the best into worse, is much like the turning of good wine, out of a fair sweet flagon of silver, into a foul musty bottle of leather, or to turn pure gold and silver into foul brass and copper.” And we need not wonder, with the same writer, that “such kind of *Paraphrasis*, in turning, chopping, and changing the best to worse, either in the mint or schools, is much disliked of the best and wisest men;” for indeed “it is a bold comparison to think to say better than that is best.” “I can better allow,” adds old Roger, “another kind of *Paraphrasis*, to turn rude and barbarous into proper and eloquent; which nevertheless is an exercise not fit for a scholar, but for a perfect master, who in plenty hath good choice, in copy hath right judgment, and grounded skill.” Here, also, let us add, it may be necessary to ask the pupil to supply one word for another in order to ascertain his knowledge of its meaning, or the extent of his vocabulary. This, however, is merely an exercise in *Substitution*. And substitution is certainly not Paraphrase.

III. Paraphrase is sometimes, we may almost say commonly, supposed to consist in a combination of these two processes. For example, in a so-called paraphrase of the above lines of Milton, his “pure gold and silver” is thus transmuted into “foul brass and copper” by the Reverend John Hunter:—

“The Almighty Power hurled him headlong and blazing from the bright sky, with frightful precipitation and devouring flames, down to the infinite depths of utter ruin, to dwell there in everlasting chains and fiery punishment,—him who had the impious hardihood to take up arms of defiance against the Omnipotent.”

There, surely, is a notable example of sublime

nonsense. Is there no Court of Poetical Justice, in which one who has had "the impious hardihood" to rush with such "frightful precipitation" upon our grandest epic, may be arraigned, and consigned, in a parliamentary sense at least, to "the infinite depths of utter ruin?" We might enliven our dull pages with scores of examples of the same kind of "assault and battery." Thus:—

MILTON.

"In bulk as huge
As whom the fables name of monstrous size,
Titanian, or Earth-born, that warred on Jove;
Briareos, or Typhon, whom the den
By ancient Tarsus held; or that sea-beast
Leviathan," &c.

HUNTER.

"In bulk he was as huge as those whom the fables of the ancients mention as being of prodigious size,—the Titans, or sons of Terra, that made war on Jupiter, Briareos, or Typhon, who dwelt in that cave near the ancient city of Tarsus;—or as vast as that *marine animal* Leviathan," &c.

That is surely a bold stroke of the big brush; yet we can assure our readers that this is no joke. Mr Hunter is really quite serious when he thus goes the whole "marine animal," and renders further exposure unnecessary by making himself quite ridiculous. Nothing could be better calculated than a Book of Milton turned into this kind of thing, to bring discredit upon Paraphrase. But our readers do not need to be told that this is not Paraphrase: it is the step from the sublime to the ridiculous; it is downright murder. The less we have of this in our schools and training colleges, the better for our national education in taste, in propriety, in very decency. And if this is what my Lords of the Privy Council, or our University Examiners, require when they specify "the clear and simple Paraphrase" of a passage from an English author, the sooner the whole thing is cast overboard, the better for themselves and the cause on which they annually expend thousands of the public money.

We hope we have now shewn clearly enough what Paraphrase is *not*. It is not *Substitution*; it is not *Transposition*; and it is not the execrable medley of these two, of which we have given an example, and which may appropriately be called *Hunterese*. Let us now try to shew with equal clearness what Paraphrase is.

Paraphrase, then, is the translating of an author's thought out of the *form* in which he has expressed it into a new *form*. The matter of thought, the essential meaning, remains the same; but it is expressed in a different form. It consists not merely in the substitution of synonymes, or in the alteration of the order of ideas. The change must be as complete as in the case of a change of

idiom in translating from one language into another. *Comment vous portez vous?* for example, is rather a paraphrase than a translation of *How d'ye do?* A sentence is a complete thought expressed in words; a paraphrase of a sentence is the same thought expressed in an entirely new way. One of the best examples of Paraphrase that we can find is afforded by Shakespeare, who says in one place—

"Men's evil manners live in brass;
Their virtues we write in water,"

and precisely to the same effect, says in another place—

"The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones."

There can be no doubt about the essential identity of the sentiment expressed in both of these passages. The abstract thought is, the proneness of mankind to remember what is base in human nature rather than what is good and pure. In the first example, Shakespeare has used one concrete illustration of this abstract thought,—the permanence of monumental brass contrasted with the transiency of water. In the second example he has transposed the same abstract thought into a new concrete,—life contrasted with death. This is Paraphrase in its purest and highest form; and a good prose Paraphrase of both passages would consist in some such expression of the abstract thought as we have attempted above,—"*Men are more apt to remember what is base in human nature, than what is good and pure.*"

Now the process here evidently consists, first, in getting a clear and firm hold of the thought; and, second, in finding a good original expression of that thought. This may be done by expressing the abstract thought. It may also be done by finding a new concrete example of it, and moulding that into a proper form. We need not attempt this in the present instance, seeing that it has been so marvellously done by the great Master himself. But we may suggest, as other contrasts by means of which it might be embodied, those of brass and gold, adamant and snow, day and night, light and darkness, spirit and matter, the heavenly and the earthly.

To take another example; Tennyson says, in *In Memoriam*,

"I envy not the heart that takes
His license in the field of Time,
Unfettered by the sense of crime,
To whom a conscience never wakes."

And in a note on this verse in Morell and Ihne's *Poetical Reading Book*, we are told that "the sense is,—I do not esteem as of any value the mere gratification of passion, where no moral

feeling of divine law and personal responsibility is blended." Overlooking something which savours of verbosity in this rendering, the note gives us a good paraphrase of the stanza. It translates the thought from the concrete into the abstract form. This of course always implies that the passage to be paraphrased should contain some distinct and comprehensible thought or thoughts. And if this test were applied to the passages prescribed in Government and other examination papers, it would shew very plainly, we suspect, either that many of these passages were highly unsuitable, or that the idea attached by the examiners to Paraphrase is something quite different from what we have explained.

It must be conceded that, in this form, the exercise is one of much greater difficulty than it is in the other forms on which we remarked above. But in proportion to its greater difficulty, so, we think, does the value of the exercise increase. What its value is, we shall now try to shew.

And first, its value is very great in connection with the analytic and critical reading of classic authors. You wish to know whether your pupils really understand what they are reading. Ask them then, taking up such a short passage from Shakespeare or Tennyson as we have quoted above, or taking up similar expressions in Milton, or Bacon, or Addison,—ask them, we say, "What does this mean? Express what is here said in your own words. Put that thought into a new form. Translate this concrete into the abstract; or give me a new concrete expression of the same thought." When this is done, you will have turned Paraphrase to good account; for thereby you will exercise the thinking power of your pupils, and discover to what extent they have grasped the meaning of the author under examination. And this we hold to be a very important and valuable exercise. It is the only way in which the reading of English authors in the higher classes can be made to serve the highest educational purposes,—to train the mind, and cultivate the taste, and enlarge the power of expression.

But this leads us to observe, secondly, that thus the exercise comes to be of great value in connection with the teaching of English composition. It affords the same kind of practice in learning to write, as copying from a model affords in learning to paint. Every artist begins with copying, transferring, re-modelling what has been modelled before; the power of creating comes later. Now in writing English in our schools and colleges, there is far too little of this preliminary training. Our boys and girls are set to compose grand themes on comprehensive subjects, before they have learned to express single thoughts, or to see how great writers have done so; just as if a young musician were to begin with composing an oratorio, or as if a young artist were to take in hand an historical picture before he had studied how Michael Angelo modelled an arm, or Rembrandt threw in a subtle shadow. Unquestionably Paraphrase affords to some extent a cure for this, provided it is Paraphrase of the right sort.

Again, one of the great difficulties in teaching our pupils the practical use of the English language, arises from the general meagreness and weakness of their thoughts, qualities which are not surprising in tender minds. But Paraphrase removes this difficulty, by actually giving them thoughts, and asking them only to clothe these in fitting language. In this view, Paraphrase forms an admirable introduction to original composition,—a safe and not too difficult transition from the analysis and synthesis of sentences to the writing of sentences in which both the thought and the expression shall be the pupil's own.

The practical conclusion, then, to which we come is, that while teachers should use the processes of Substitution and Transposition, separately or in combination, for such minor purposes as were indicated above, the name Paraphrase should be confined to the higher intellectual exercise which we have last explained. To Paraphrase in this form, and for these ends, we do not believe that any right-minded man will offer any serious or valid objection.

THE WORKING OF THE REVISED CODE.



SUFFICIENT time has now elapsed since the new measure of the Committee of Council came into operation to allow of some general conclusions respecting it, and at least of an approximate estimate of its probable results. It will

be well, however, to wait for more extended experience before attempting to determine on the merits of the whole question, or on all the complicated relations and interests which are involved in it.

To committees of school managers the most anxious question generally is, "How will the new

measures affect the School Funds?" To teachers this question is also interesting, but they are still more concerned to know how the new system of inspection and examination affects their work, what new duties it imposes on them, and what new difficulties it starts. To the general public, who care but little for details, but who for the most part take a genuine interest in the improvement and extension of popular instruction, the chief subject of inquiry is, How is the Code likely to influence the efficiency of such instruction, and its fitness for the end proposed? On each of these points a few words may be offered.

As to the *financial* effect of the new measures on the schools, it may be safely asserted that a very small part of the fear that has been very naturally felt by managers, has yet been realised. The Code works better for the pecuniary interests of managers, than, as a rule, they expected. For example, a school containing 120 children, in average attendance, receives a sum computed at 4s. per head per child for attendance alone. Suppose out of this number only 100 had fulfilled the conditions which entitled them to present themselves for examination (viz. 200 attendances, or 100 whole days in the year), and suppose that of this number 90 per cent. pass the ordeal with credit, the total income of the school will be as follows:—

$$\begin{array}{r} 120 \times 4s. = £24 \\ 90 \times 8s. = \quad 36 \\ \hline £60 \end{array}$$

Now it is clear that a grant of this amount suffices to pay the principal teacher as large a sum as he used to receive for augmentation on account of his certificate, and the special instruction to his apprentice, to pay the pupil-teacher, and to leave a respectable balance for the general funds of the school by way of compensation for the withdrawal of the old capitation grant. The case supposed is a very fair one. The proportion of children eligible for examination (5 out of 6), is comparatively small, and may easily be exceeded, whenever parents and children are loyal to the school, and when reasonable pains are taken to whip up for the day of examination the absentees, and those who have left the school during the last two or three months in the year. Again, the proportion of children who are supposed to pass (9 out of 10 in the three subjects), is not so large as is often attained in good schools. As far as we can judge at present, 80 per cent. of the children pass even in any humble schools, while in thoroughly well-taught schools the proportion of 95 and even 96 per cent. is not unfrequently attained.

So long, therefore, as the school is maintained in a state of efficiency, managers may fairly calculate on receiving an annual grant of about 10s. per head on the average attendance. Thus, since it is computed that even in neighbourhoods where salaries are highest, the total cost of education in a well-equipped public school for boys amounts to about 30s. per child, there is one-third of that total expense met by a grant from the national treasury; another third is generally borne by the parents in the form of school fees; so that the remaining third represents the amount required in the shape of voluntary subscriptions from the managers and their friends. This is certainly a very reasonable demand upon the benevolent supporters of schools, considering that the sole management and control, including the right to appoint and dismiss the teachers, is left in their hands.

So much for the *amount* of the probable grant; but there are incidental advantages connected with the mode in which the money is paid, which will soon, we think, make themselves more generally apparent. The whole of the grant now passes through the hands of the managers, and the responsibility of making a right distribution of the sum is confided to them. Their control is therefore greatly increased by the recent change. But a fact of more practical importance is, that the amount of the grant will be found to furnish a gauge or test of the efficiency of the school; for it will fluctuate, year by year, according partly to the numbers, and partly to the success of the teaching. Managers who receive £60 this year, and £65 in the next, will be able at once to know either that there are more children in attendance, or that they have been better taught. On the other hand, if the sum should prove to be smaller, they will be made aware that their school is in some way or other doing less work than before. We believe that managers have long been anxious for some means of increasing the usefulness of their schools from time to time. But so long as the same sum was paid uniformly to teacher and pupil-teacher, whether the school was large or small, and whether the work was done well or ill, the managers were left in considerable doubt on this point, and found difficulty in comparing the work of one year with that of another.

The anxiety of teachers respecting the way in which the Code would affect their work is very natural, but much of it has proved to be unfounded. The test to be applied to the individual children is on the whole an easy one, and the power which is left in the teacher's hand, to group the children for examination according to his own estimate of

their fitness, practically removes all reasonable ground of complaint. The "Supplementary Rules"* issued by the Council, point out that the grouping for examination shall correspond to the ordinary classification of the school. Now if the children who are presented in accordance with these rules fail to pass, it is manifest that they have been wrongly classified for daily instruction; and this is a defect which it is the teacher's business to remedy. If the children are properly taught, it is scarcely possible that they can fail to pass in the standard appropriated to the class to which they belong.

Two or three hints of a rather formal kind may, however, properly be given to teachers who are preparing their scholars for examination under the New Code.

(1.) Study carefully beforehand the requirements of the Code, and the conditions laid down in the Supplementary Rules; and occasionally, at intervals perhaps of one or two months, group the children as for the inspector, apply the sort of test which he is likely to use, and observe in what points the classes are deficient.

(2.) In teaching reading, be careful that each

class uses some book which is suited to the age and capacity of its members. Half the faults in reading arise from the fact that children are required to articulate words to which they attach no meaning, and in which they have no interest. A great deal of the language employed, for example, in the 3d and 4th Irish Lesson Books, is hard and technical, and utterly incomprehensible to children. It is weary work for teachers, as well as for learners, to go through a reading lesson in such circumstances. Take care therefore, first, that the books you use deal with words and notions intelligible to your pupils; and secondly, that you constantly kindle their interest in reading, by explaining all the difficult words, and by questioning and conversation on every lesson.

(3.) The failures in writing arise generally from one of two causes. In the lower classes, the children can often make the required letters separately, but they have no notion of the proportion or relative sizes of different letters. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth standards, the inspector is instructed to test the writing *on paper*, and here failures often occur through a want of previous practice. The children presented in these standards may have

* RULE 1.—In column II. of the Examination Schedule, the names of the Candidates must be entered class by class, beginning with the *lowest* Scholar in the *lowest* class.

RULE 2.—The entries in column VII. must shew where one class ends and another begins. The number denoting each class is to be written only *once*; dots (" ") are to be put for each repetition of it, until the next higher class begins. There must be no intermixture of classes.

RULE 3.—The entries in column VIIIb. will shew where one standard ends and another begins. The number denoting each standard is to be written only once; dots (" ") are to be put for each repetition of it until the next higher standard begins. There must be no intermixture of standards (1).

RULE 4.—The end of each standard in column VIIIb. need not (although, of course, it may) coincide with the end of each class in column VII. (1). Compare the entries opposite to No. 6

(1) In the following transcript of part of the Examination Schedule, Columns II. VII. and VIIIb. are filled up, by way of example, according to Rules 2 and 3. Of course, the other columns must not, in practice, be left blank; and the actual numbers, presented in each class, will generally be much larger.

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIIIa.	VIIIb.
Number.	NAME.	Age (on next birth day).	Date of admission to this School. Year. Month.	Number of attendances† in the year.	Occupation of parent. LEAVE BLANK if the parent (not employing journeymen or apprentices) supports himself by manual labour. <i>In other cases, make an entry.</i>	In what class of school; first means highest.	Under what standard LAST examined, enter I., II., III., &c. as case may require.	Under what standard NOW to be examined, enter I., II., III., &c. as case may require.
1	John Jones					4th.		I.
2	Thomas Peters					"		"
3	Henry Brown					"		"
4	Wm Robinson					"		"
5	Thomas Davies					"		"
6	Robert Finch							"
7	Luke Williams					3rd.		"
8	Simon Hunt					"		"
9	James Short					"		II.
10	Richard Rogers					"		"
11	Samuel Grant					2nd.		"
12	John Styles				Huckster,†	"		"
13	Henry Pigot					"		"
14	Stias Wills					"		"
15	John Millar					"		"
16	Peter Downes					"		"
17	Charles Potts					1st.		III.

† See Rule 12.

† See Rule 10.

written plenty of dictation exercises on slates, and they may also have filled many formal copy-books, but when they are required to write a passage, especially if it is a poetical one, from dictation, on a sheet of paper, they are clumsy and embarrassed, the writing is scratchy and feeble, and they are quite unable to trace the lines and to lay out the whole exercise in a readable form. It therefore seems necessary to suggest to teachers, first, that in using slates the children of the lower classes should always write within ruled lines, and be shewn the proportions of letters as well as their forms; secondly, that paper for dictation and other exercises should be introduced earlier, and used oftener. Children cannot be expected to do justice to themselves, if on examination day they are subjected to a sort of test not habitually employed in the work of the school.

(4.) It is reported that the largest proportion of failures is to be found in the arithmetic. There are several ways of accounting for this. Teachers should remember that in all the standards, but especially in the 1st and 2d, the inspector is likely

to give oral questions, as well as to look at the written exercise. Now brisk and frequent questioning on arithmetic is too much neglected in schools, and teachers are greatly mistaken who suppose that any amount of accurate slate-work will ever compensate for this neglect. They should give, in connection with every rule, questions to be worked without the aid of the pencil, until the children are thoroughly familiar with all the simpler combinations of numbers, and able to give prompt and correct replies. Those attentive to oral exercises will not only be seen to tell beneficially on the returns in the examination schedule, but will do what is far more important, increase the interest of the pupils in arithmetic, as well as the general vivacity and intelligence of the school.

It is said, also, that many children are rejected in the second standard through ignorance of the multiplication table, even though they are quite able to work the sums required in that standard. Teachers will do well, therefore, to remember that this is a point which it will be dangerous to overlook.

who ends a *class*, but not a *standard*; No. 8, who ends a *standard* but not a *class*; No. 16, who ends *both* a *class* and a *standard* (this is preferable).

RULE 5.—The managers need not present all the scholars, who in each class are qualified for examination by number of attendances; but those whom they present at all must be presented in the classes to which the school registers prove them to belong, unless they fall as "*Exceptions*" under Rule 4.

RULE 6.—The children who, for whatever reason, are presented under a lower standard than that which an examination of the School according to the above rules assigns to their class, must be entered *last* in the Schedule under the title of "*Exceptions*;" otherwise, they will violate Rule 2 or 3. No child is to be placed among the "*Exceptions*" unless there is some special *excuse* for doing so, such as previous *illness*, &c. *Prima facie*, every child who is not fit to be examined in its own class has been wrongly placed there *for instruction*.

RULE 7.—The Inspector is directed to refuse to examine Schools *wherein Rule 2 or 3 is violated*. He will in such cases proceed to inspect the School, and will report to the Committee of Council why he has left column IX. In the Examination Schedule bla k.

RULE 8.—No grant will be paid to a School (not being one for Evening Scholars or Infants only) unless one *class*—i. e. all who are to be examined as members of one class according to Rule 5—be presented *at least as high as Standard III*.

RULE 9.—A deduction of at least one-tenth will be made from the grant to a School (not being one for Evening Scholars or Infants only) unless one *class*—i. e. all who are to be examined as members of one class, according to Rule 5—be presented *above Standard III*.

RULE 10.—Entries in column VI. have reference to Article 4 in the Revised Code,* and do not exclude children from the grant whose parents, though not supporting themselves by manual labour, yet are of the *same means and social level* as those who do so; such as shopkeepers who have only petty stocks, and employ no one but members of their own family.

Cases of doubt are to be determined according to the answers to one or more of the following inquiries:—

a. Does A. B. work for himself, or for a master? if for him-

self, does he employ apprentices or journeymen? This will apply to masons, carpenters, tailors, blacksmiths, mariners, fishermen, &c.

The class denoted by Article 4 supports itself by its own manual labour only, and not by profit on the labour of others.

b. Would it be unreasonable to expect him to pay 9d. per week for the schooling of each of his children?

This payment equals about 30s. per annum, the estimated cost (Royal Commissioners' Report, page 346) of elementary instruction in a day school.

c. Does he rank, and associate with, the working-men, or with the tradesmen of the place?

Simple Policemen, Coast-guards, and Dock and Railway Porters, may commonly be regarded as labouring men. But Petty Officers in those services, Excisemen, Pilots, and Clerks of various kinds, present more difficulty, and must be judged of according to the answers to the preceding inquiries.

Every occupation which does not fall within the *letter* of Article 4, should be entered in column VI., but a *well-marked line* should be drawn under those entries which are thought to fall within the *spirit* of Article 4. See No. 12, in specimen Schedule, *supra*.

RULE 11.—To find the average number of Scholars in attendance at a School for any period, add together the total number of attendances (see Rule 12) made by all the Scholars within the period, and divide the sum by the number of times which the School has been open within the same period; the quotient is the average number in attendance. The names and number of Individual Scholars are to be disregarded in this calculation.

RULE 12.—Attendance at a morning or afternoon meeting may not be reckoned for any Scholar who has been under instruction *less than two hours*, nor attendance at an evening meeting for any Scholar who has been under instruction *less than one hour and a half* (Article 41). The Class Registers, at each meeting of a School, *must be marked, and finally closed, before the minimum time constituting an attendance begins*. The Inspector will inquire whether this rule has been observed. (Article 61, d).

* The object of the grant is to promote the education of children belonging to the classes who support themselves by manual labour.

A more serious cause of failure is the absurd habit, on the part of many teachers, of writing down all the arithmetical exercises, on the black board or otherwise, before they are worked, and so of giving them ready manufactured into the shape of sums. Children who are taught in this blind mechanical way are utterly confounded when a question is given out to them in words, and when they are required to interpret these words, to translate them into figures, and to place the figures aright. A child cannot be said to know even the rule of "addition" if he can only *do* an addition sum, which is first constructed and then set before him, and if he is unable to arrange the figures for addition by himself. It is important for teachers to remember, that in real life arithmetical problems do not come to us shaped like sums, still less are they always symmetrical in shape. They must therefore guard against failure, partly by the constant use of the method of dictating sums in words, and partly by trying to anticipate all the various irregular forms which numerical questions may assume in real life.

While, however, these hints are offered to teachers as to little points of detail which affect the amount of the Government grant, it is not to be feared that they will prove very necessary, especially in another year, when a little experience will have been gained as to the working of the new system of examination. There is no doubt that teachers will soon master all these details with sufficient care, and will learn all the expedients by which the maximum grant may be obtained. A far more serious danger is likely to shew itself, unless teachers and managers alike determine to be on the watch to prevent it. In the anxiety to fulfil the merely technical requirements of the new code, other and equally important matters may be neglected. Geography, history, and grammar may be laid aside. Conversational lessons on miscellaneous subjects may be diminished in number. The habit of interrogation on the meaning of the lessons may be given up, home exercises be discouraged, and the general intelligence of the children may suffer accordingly. Now, at first sight, it may seem to some that results like these are the necessary consequences of the new code, and that indeed they were specially contemplated and intended by its founders. But this is a great mistake. The six standards represent the *minimum* requirements for schools even in the most unfavourable circumstances. When the school is carried on under favourable or even average conditions, much greater proficiency ought to be attained. Moreover, the inspector has it in his power to deduct any portion, not less

than one-tenth or more than one-half, of the total grant, for dull, unintelligent, or merely mechanical and routine teaching. This penalty, though rarely enforced during the first or experimental year, will probably be used in future, to a considerable and increasing extent, whenever teachers are narrowing their own notions of duty to the bare requirements of the code, or sacrificing the general intelligence and culture of the children to the mistaken desire to secure a large sum by way of grant.

In fact, if even these bare requirements be alone considered, teachers will do well to cultivate the broadest and most liberal views of their own duties, and of the course of instruction to be pursued. For all the subjects in the school course which are found useful in cultivating general mental activity and interest in study, are sure to tell, indirectly it is true, but yet very effectually, upon the reading, writing, and arithmetic. If any attempt is made to teach these three subjects alone, as mechanical arts merely, and without the collateral aid afforded by a good course of general instruction, such an attempt is sure to fail even in the attainment of the very humble end which it proposes to secure.

As to the general public, who live outside of the school-room, and who are looking on the effect of the recent changes with interest, it may suffice to say at present that the great experiment is working hopefully, and that, on the whole, the efficiency of our primary schools is likely to be sustained, if not positively improved. There can be no doubt that the system of individual examination is in itself a great gain. It furnishes exactly the check which was needed, upon unsound, desultory, and pretentious work. In the best schools this check was not needed; and by the best of the inspectors a test of an equally searching kind was always applied, especially to the schools which needed it the most. But after all, laws and rules must be made for average people and for average schools, even if they are not specially framed, as they often ought to be, to control persons who, in conscientiousness and diligence, are below the average. The new test does not supersede any of the old methods of inquiry into the working and general usefulness of the school. But it is a supplement, and in many cases a very necessary supplement, to such methods. Her Majesty's inspectors are as much in sympathy as they ever were with all the efforts teachers are making to promote the moral and intellectual improvement of the children. But by the individual examination, *p'us* the inspection, a guarantee for the efficiency of the school is provided,

which probably a general inspection alone would not furnish.

At present, therefore, it would appear, that although teachers and managers had at first real grounds for apprehension, and although it is certain that the Revised Code was introduced in a harsh and ungenerous manner, all parties have been "more frightened than hurt" by its provisions. The salaries of good teachers have not, as a rule, suffered any diminution. The best schools will still be encouraged to maintain their superiority, and what is of more importance, will gain the largest grants. There is a new guarantee for

the thoroughness of the elementary teaching, and at present it is not clear that this has been obtained by the sacrifice of any of the former guarantees. Thus much may be admitted. What effect the new measures will prove to have had upon the supply of teachers, upon the "status" of their profession, and upon their fitness for the work, remains yet to be proved, and must not be prematurely decided. Another year's experience at least will be needed before it will be possible to pronounce a safe opinion on this important point.

Z.

MIDDLE CLASS PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*



HERE are at present before the country two separate proposals for the organization of a system of public schools for the middle classes. Mr Matthew Arnold, having first paved the way for his proposal by a description of the Toulouse Lyceum, and of secondary instruction in France, proposes "to constitute in every county at least one great centre of secondary instruction, with low charges, with the security of inspection, and with a public character," and to give to these institutions "some such title as that of *Royal Schools*." Earl Fortescue proposes the establishment of a system of Royal County Schools, on the basis of the constitution of the Devon County School, which is now—thanks to his lordship's and his late father's fostering care—in a highly prosperous state. He further proposes that, in advance of these County Schools, there should be a series of County (or perhaps rather Diocesan) Colleges; while over the whole there should be a County University, to grant degrees and afford some security for the character of the education supplied both in the lower and in the higher institutions of the system.

These are, nakedly and briefly, the two proposals. Before going into any of their details, and before comparing or contrasting the two proposals, there are one or two "scores" that we must clear off with Mr Arnold. When we have eliminated our differences, we shall be all the heartier in our agreement.

Mr Arnold has launched forth in an uncon-

* 1. "A French Eton, Part II."—*Macmillan's Magazine* for February.

2. *Public Schools for the Middle Classes*. By Earl Fortescue, Patron of the Devon County School. London: Longmans, 1864.

promising and indiscriminating attack upon all private schools. He does not concede that there is one good thing in them. He refuses to recognise any exceptions to the "charlatany" which, according to Mr Arnold, they universally practise. He sweeps across the educational field with all the dash and fire of a light dragoon. He gives no quarter. He deals about him lustily with the weapons of abuse and satire. They are bad, wholly bad, every one of them bad. They are cumberers of the educational ground. They must be cut down, root and branch, and cast into the fire. Not only is the whole system of private schools a nuisance, a delusion and a snare, but even one good private school is an impossibility, or a possibility so bare as not to be taken into account. A very few proprietary schools and colleges are just sufferable, and that mainly on account of the character of the men who preside over them. And all this Mr Arnold writes for the enlightenment of the middle classes themselves, who may know "good butter from bad, and tainted meat from fresh," but who "do not so well know what distinguishes good teaching and training from bad;" and who may therefore take his word for all that he advances, as the word of "one who knows."

Now this is a mistake in policy, as well as a mistake in fact. By trying to make his case as strong as possible, he has actually made it weak at a very important point. We readily admit,—and we grieve to have to admit it,—that there is a vast number of schools of the description which Mr Arnold has so vividly drawn, poor schools, bad schools, schools based on deception and carried on in charlatany, schools which are a disgrace to our country, schools which could not

exist for a day, but for that blindness of perception in things educational which Mr Arnold has so well and so strongly insisted on. But we believe, nay, we know, that even in England, which is the hotbed of this educational charlatanism, there are many good private schools, schools which both provide an adequate amount of education, and afford adequate security for its excellence; schools frequented by the upper and middle classes, and carried on at a cost neither so high as that of Eton or Harrow, nor so low as that of the "Educational Home." All private schools do not advertise in the *Times*, "conscientiously offering education at £20 per annum, no extras," or professing "to combine home comforts with school training." But nowhere has Mr Arnold recognised this fact. Nowhere has he said, "I know that there are exceptions." And this, we say, is a grave mistake in policy. Mr Arnold must know as well as we do, that he cannot be better aware of the faults of bad private schools, or more heartily incensed against them, than are the friends and conductors of good private schools. Yet by the uncompromising swing of his beam of destruction he has swept away, and deprived himself of, the sympathy and the co-operation of many good men and true, who think as justly and feel as strongly as he does on the disgraceful quackery of the "educational homes" on the one hand, and on the deplorable gullibility of their dupes on the other. We are surprised that a man of Mr Arnold's known honesty and shrewdness should have made such an unpardonable mistake. He must know very well that if fifty *Royal Schools* were to be instituted to-morrow, there would still be, not only room, but need, for private schools of the better sort, just as, in spite of Eton and Harrow, and all the "sacred nine," there exist, and always have existed, alongside of them, private schools, at the same rates, and frequented by the same classes of society. And it is well that it is so, both for the sake of competition, unequal though it be, and because even a system of public schools may become effete and useless. What, for example, would be the state of the middle classes in Scotland, if they were dependent upon the burgh and grammar schools alone?

This is the main, almost the sole, fault we have to find with Mr Arnold. On all other points we are substantially at one with him, and cordially wish him success in his crusade, and in his subsequent organization. He will not find us uttering the catchword he dreads,—“The State had better leave things alone.” We believe things have come to that, that the State dare not leave them alone.

The necessity of educational establishments for all classes admits of clearer demonstration than the necessity of ecclesiastical establishments; and the separate independence of these two classes of establishments—let us hint in passing—is the most necessary condition of the efficiency of both. State education is a greater necessity than State police or a standing army; and there is no greater degradation in accepting the benefits of the first, than in accepting the protection of the second and third. And the strange thing is, that while, in England, this principle has been recognized in connection with the extremes of the social scale, it has hitherto been wholly disregarded in connection with the mean. This is clearly pointed out by Mr Arnold. It is also the point from which Earl Fortescue starts, when he says,

“There are, in fact, only two systems of public education in England: one for the higher ranks, formed by the close connection of some half dozen leading schools with the two old universities; the other for the labouring classes, resulting from the grant for education voted by Parliament, and distributed through the Privy Council” (p. 3). Yet the scheme proposed by Earl Fortescue is not for a system of public education for the middle classes in the same sense in which these two systems are public. The Devon County School, which he advances as a model of what he would suggest for the other counties, is essentially a proprietary school, carried on by the “Devon County School Association (Limited).” And this, apart from the manner of conducting the controversy, is the first point of divergence between Earl Fortescue and Mr Arnold. Schools of this kind would not meet the conditions which the latter holds to be necessary—adequate *provision* of schools, and adequate *security* for their fitness. The former condition they might fulfil, but not so the latter. The only security that his lordship's scheme offers, is that of examinations to be held by the county university, somewhat lower in standard than that of the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations. And if the security of the latter is rejected by Mr Arnold as inadequate, much more will he reject the former. And this suggests to us another point of difference between the two proposals. The whole aim of the Earl's scheme is directed to a lower point in the social scale than that of the Professor. The former seeks to cater for Sir John Coleridge's lower middle class of “tenant-farmers, small landholders, and retail tradesmen.” The latter holds that Sir John, in making this sub-division, “carries the process of distinction and demarcation further than I can think quite desirable.”

Yet, however undesirable, we suspect that the distinction must be recognised. The charges in the Devon County School are 23 guineas, and 25 guineas for boarders, 4 guineas and 6 guineas for day boys. Mr Arnold's sum ranges "from £25 to £50 a-year"—too wide a range, perhaps, for one class of schools. Nor are we sure that the course of study would satisfy Mr Arnold; indeed, we are confident that it would not. It embraces all the branches of a thorough English education, with French in all the classes except the lowest, a little Algebra, more Euclid, and less Latin, in the highest. Now, if we understand Mr Arnold's scheme aright, he would pitch the standard of curriculum for gentlemen of the middle classes considerably higher than this; and, without making it compulsory upon all, would at the same time enable Earl Fortescue's lower middle class to prosecute such a course of study as that we have described.

It would be much easier for the projectors of these two schemes to harmonise their views on this point, than on the fundamental one of the means of support. Earl Fortescue is one of those who think that the system of grants in aid is too "eleemosynary in character" to be acceptable to the "independent middle classes." Mr Arnold, as we have already indicated, repels this notion. He argues, pithily, that the citizen's relation to the State is not that of a dependent to a parental benefactor, "but that of the member in a partnership to the whole firm. The citizens of a State, the members of a society, are really a partnership; 'a partnership,' as Burke nobly says, 'in all science, in all art, in every virtue, in all perfection.' Towards this great final design of their connection, they apply the aids which co-operative association can give them. This applied to education will undoubtedly give the middling person a better schooling than his own individual unaided resources could give him; but he is not thereby humiliated, he is not degraded; he is wisely and usefully turning his associated condition to the best account. Considering his end and destination, he is bound so to turn it; certainly he has the right so to turn it."

But Mr Arnold has another reason than right and duty for insisting on State aid. In connection with it he finds that "sufficient security" which is his second great condition of an adequate system of education, and which he can find nowhere else. Actual inspection of every class in every school by competent, recognised, and responsible officials, is his great panacea for our educational ills. The State alone can provide an adequate system of inspection. State subsidies are

only means of purchasing the right to inspect. Middle-class schools must be endowed by the State, in order that they may be inspected by the State,—by the State as responsible to the whole body politic, who would thus turn their collective influence to their individual advantage.

Having thus briefly sketched the leading features of the two proposals for middle-class public schools that are before the country, and having pointed out wherein they agree and differ, and wherein we agree with their authors, or differ from them, we shall allow Mr Arnold to explain his design in his own words:—

"I have no pet scheme to press, no crotchet to gratify, no fanatical zeal for giving this or that particular shape to the public establishment of our secondary instruction. All I say is, that it is most urgent to give to the establishment of it a wider, a truly public character, and that only the State can give this. If the matter is but once fairly taken in hand, and by competent agency, I am satisfied. In this country we do not move fast; we do not organize great wholes all in a day. But if the State only granted for secondary instruction the sum which it originally granted for primary—£20,000 a-year—and employed this sum in founding scholarships for secondary schools, with the stipulation that all the schools which sent pupils to compete for these scholarships should admit inspection, a beginning would have been made; a beginning which I truly believe would, at the end of ten years' time, be found to have raised the character of secondary instruction all through England. If more than this can be attempted at first, Sir John Coleridge, in his two excellent letters on this subject to the *Guardian*, perfectly indicates the right course to take: indeed, one could wish nothing better than to commit the settlement of this matter to men of such prudence, moderation, intelligence, and public character as Sir John Coleridge. The four or five hundred endowed schools, whose collective operations now give so little result, should be turned to better account; amalgamation should be used, the most useful of these institutions strengthened, the most useless suppressed, the whole body of them be treated as one whole, destined harmoniously to co-operate towards one end. What should be had in view is to constitute in every county at least one great centre of secondary instruction, with low charges, with the security of inspection, and with a public character. These institutions should bear some such title as that of *Royal Schools*, and should derive their support, mainly, of course, from school-fees, but partly, also, from endowments—their own, or those appropriated to them

—and partly from scholarships supplied by public grants. Wherever it is possible, wherever, that is, their scale of charges is not too high, or their situation not too unsuitable, existing schools of good repute should be adopted as the *Royal Schools*. Schools such as Mr Woodward's, such as King Edward's school at Birmingham, such as the Collegiate School at Liverpool, at once occur to one as suitable for this adoption; it would confer upon them, besides its other advantages a public character, which they are now without. Probably the very best medicine which could be devised for the defects of Eton, Harrow, and the other schools which the Royal Commissioners have been scrutinizing, would be the juxtaposition, and, to a certain extent, the competition; of establishments of this kind. No wise man will desire to see root-and-branch work made with schools like Eton or Harrow, or to see them diverted from the function which they at present discharge, and, on the whole, usefully. Great subversive changes would here be out of place; it is an addition of new that our secondary instruction wants, not a demolition of old, or, at least, not of this old. But to this old I cannot doubt that the apparition and

operation of this desirable new would give a very fruitful stimulus; as this new, on its part, would certainly be very much influenced and benefited by the old.

"The repartition of the charge of this new secondary instruction, the mode of its assessment, the constitution of the bodies for regulating the new system, the proportion and character of functions to be assigned to local and to central authority respectively, these are matters of detail and arrangement which it is foreign to my business here to discuss, and, I hope, quite foreign to my disposition to haggle and wrangle about. They are to be settled upon a due consideration of circumstances, after an attentive scrutiny of our existing means of operation, and a discriminating review of the practice of other countries. In general, if it is agreed to give a public and coherent organization to secondary instruction, few will dispute that its particular direction, in different localities, is best committed to local bodies, properly constituted, with a power of supervision by an impartial central authority, and of resort to this authority in the last instance."



THE RELATIVE ADVANTAGES OF PERMANENT AND TEMPORARY PROVISIONS FOR MEN OF LEARNING.



THE tide of public favour which, after so many generations of neglect and indifference, promises at length to set in in the direction of the higher instruction in Scotland, cannot fail to be a subject of the most unfeigned rejoicing to the readers of a periodical which was established for the purpose of promoting this very result. It will be long till we restore the ravages which the Reformation—at once more complete and more fatal in Scotland than in almost any other European country—committed on the provision which our ancestors had made, and which the wisest of the reformers vainly endeavoured to preserve, for the spiritual element. But it is something to know that, during the last ten years, more has been effected in this direction than during any previous decade, from the period of the Reformation to our own day. The late Royal Commission, though anything but a success, was not altogether barren of results even of a material kind, and the example which has already been set by Mr Muir, Sir David Baxter, Mr Mackenzie, and others, seems

to warrant the hope that, when the title-deeds of our universities and public schools come to be examined by the archaeologists of some future generation, they will exhibit instances of munificence as splendid as those which the chartularies of our old abbeys and monasteries and cathedral churches display. A tenure of three centuries affords a prescriptive title sufficient to enable the descendants of those who participated in the spoils of the ecclesiastical and scholastic institutions of old Scotland, to claim the grace of generosity for such partial restitutions as they may see fit to make. Actuated partly by the feeling that a sort of moral debt of long standing lies at their door, and partly by their interest in a country, the honour and glory of which is inextricably intertwined with their own, we feel persuaded that the nobility of Scotland only require that their attention should be directed to the subject, in order that in them, as the natural leaders of society, the higher instruction may find its most liberal patrons. But just in proportion to the prospect of increased interest which seems,

thus to open out upon us, and to the value which we attach to every fresh effort of public liberality or private munificence, is our desire that these efforts should be so directed as to produce the greatest possible effect. We feel that their continuance in no small measure depends on the visible success which almost immediately attends them; and that the tide of interest would run no small hazard of being turned in some other direction, were doubts to be excited in the public mind as to the utility of educational foundations of the higher class, similar to those which now so widely prevail with reference to the benefits conferred by hospitals on the classes for whom they were intended. Nor can we conceal from ourselves that some small danger exists of the very same error being committed in the one case as in the other. If we are not greatly mistaken, the main, if not the sole cause of the miscarriage of the hospital system has been, that it produces a class of persons for whom the organisation of society in this country offered no subsequent career. The children of parents in very humble circumstances are received into these institutions at an early age, abundantly and comfortably, if not delicately nurtured, and constantly and vigilantly superintended. They receive an education which, without qualifying them to become members of the *most* cultivated, disqualified them for being members of any other class. Thus armed and accoutred, they are sent forth to fight the battle of life, and if without friends to aid and counsel, or means to support them, they fail to fight it with success, the result is one which, far from learning with surprise, from the bitter experience of centuries, the plainest mother wit ought to have taught us to anticipate from the beginning.

It is well known that effects closely analogous to those which have thus condemned the hospital system resulted, to a more limited extent, from the numerous small bursaries which, till recently, existed in the Scottish universities. Charitable in intention, and beneficent in appearance, it was found that the only practical effect of these foundations was to tempt into the arena of learning those who were not, and who from the deficiencies of their early training never became fitted for the contest. The public, it is true, were greater sufferers than the bursars; for the pulpits of the various sects, endowed and unendowed, and the lower class of educational appointments, stood open for their reception when they had completed their studies; and if they did not greatly adorn the positions to which they were ultimately promoted, the positions adorned *them* to the fullest extent of their merits. The universities suffered.

because, in order to admit the bursar, it was found necessary that the standard of proficiency requisite for entrance should be reduced; and the public suffered, because it was found necessary that they should content themselves with half educated guides, sacred and secular; but the bursars and their relatives were gainers by a system which led to their being elevated two or three steps on the ladder of respectability and well-being. The son of the beadle became the minister of the parish, to the great profit of the beadle and his son, and the great loss of the ministry and the parish.

But the universities exist for the benefit of the community at large, and not of any single class, and so strongly was it felt that in this case they were being applied to purposes which, in the main, were mischievous, that, with the approval of all sensible men, the late University Commissioners made a crusade against the small bursary system. The most valuable portion of their whole labours probably consisted in the arrangements which they made for accumulating these bursaries, so as to make them in some measure equivalent to the scholarships of the English universities. That many of the evils of the bursary system have thus been corrected is unquestionable, and that these evils are obviated still more effectually by the institution of fellowships for students who have already taken their degrees, is a point as to which there is, we imagine, no difference of opinion. The great advantage which the fellowship possesses over the scholarship, or the bursary, even in its improved condition, consists in this, that in place of tempting an individual to enter upon a career for which nature had possibly by no means qualified him, it takes him up after he has voluntarily chosen the career himself, and prosecuted it so far as to justify the assumption that his suitability for it has been ascertained. By inducing him to carry on his studies beyond the point at which they are usually abandoned by those who enter the profession, it tends unquestionably to the production of a learned class; and that a learned class is the element which, above all others, has been wanting in Scottish society of late, is the fact which we all admit and deplore. With these unquestionable advantages in their favour, it is not surprising that the endowment of fellowships should have become the favourite scheme with a large class of university reformers. That considerable advantages may attend their multiplication beyond the very limited extent to which they yet exist in the Scottish universities, is a fact with reference to which we ourselves entertain no doubt; and in the observations which

we are about to make, we must deprecate, once for all, the intention of desiring to insinuate any such doubts into the minds of our readers.

But though free from many of the disadvantages attending the bursary system, *as regards the public*, the fellowship system, *as regards the fellows*, is liable to objections more closely analogous to those which have been alleged against the hospital system than the bursary system itself. The fellowship not only tempts its possessor to quit the position for which birth, and very probably nature, intended him, an evil which it shares in a lesser degree with the bursary, but, in a country constituted as Scotland is at present, it does so without holding out to him any ultimate career. There is one condition flagrantly and notoriously wanting in the organisation of society in Scotland, without which any academic arrangements on at all an extended scale, having for their object to induce young men to prosecute their studies beyond the point which is requisite for success in the professions, are, we fear, far more likely to prove a curse than a blessing. The condition to which we refer is the existence of permanent appointments, in such number and of such value as to offer to those who choose to prosecute their studies up to the point to which the founders of fellowships wish that they should bring them, a reasonable prospect of *living by learning in after life*. These appointments do not, and probably ought not to exist in direct connection with the professions. When learned or scientific acquirements of the higher kind coincide with professional eminence, they ought, and we hope always will be taken into account in determining the choice of the dispensers of public patronage. But few men are capable of attaining to anything like real eminence in more than one pursuit. The fact that literary and professional eminence do not very frequently co-exist in the same individual is notorious; and we agree with the public in the conclusion at which it seems to arrive more

and more decidedly every year, that it is professional, and not literary eminence which must rule in the disposal of professional appointments. If, then, we put the appointments connected with the professions and the public service aside, and make up our minds, as we probably must, that, in so far as practice is concerned, the additional amount of learning which a *fellow* may be supposed to possess over a mere *graduate* is never likely to compensate him for the time he has spent in acquiring it, and for the suspicion of "unbusiness-like habits" which the practical world is sure to harbour against him, where is the probability that he will be the better for his fellowship in after life? In so far as Scotland is concerned, the only appointments that it will help to open to him will be the professorships in the universities; and these are far too few, and many of them too scantily endowed, to induce young men to devote themselves to their pursuit, or to warrant their parents and guardians in recommending them to do so. What is wanted in Scotland is not so much means of learning as inducements to learn, and the only form in which the latter can be effectively supplied is that of permanent appointments, of such value as to compete, on something like equal terms, with the prizes of the professions. It is not necessary that they should be exclusively university appointments. So long as they are attainable only by means of learning, and their tenure necessitates a continued application to learned pursuits, the cause of learning will be advanced by them equally, whatever be their character in other respects. The head mastership of the Fettes College, without the university, will, in this respect, serve precisely the same purpose as the Sanserit chair within it; and these two endowments, if we are not greatly deceived, possess a value, as means of promoting learning, vastly beyond what would have belonged to scholarships or fellowships representing the same pecuniary amount. L.

EDINBURGH LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.



HE proposal to extend the Local Examination system to Scotland, under the auspices of the Scottish Universities, was first made about four years ago, when it received the approval of the General Councils of Edinburgh and Glasgow. About the same time, a scheme was prepared by the Senatus Academicus of the University of

Edinburgh, and the matter was brought under the notice of the Universities' Commission, then in the midst of its labours. The measure was disapproved of by the Commissioners, because, as appears from their Report, since published, it was proposed to introduce into it conditions affecting the arrangements for graduation in arts, and, also, it is understood, because there were no funds at

their disposal which could be applied in furtherance of the scheme.

The Edinburgh Senatus has again been induced to take up the question, in consequence of the indications they saw in various quarters of a wish for the establishment of these examinations, and chiefly in consequence of a memorial signed by upwards of a hundred and twenty of the heads of the leading mercantile, banking, and insurance offices in Scotland, in which they pledged themselves, in selecting their clerks and assistants, to give a preference to those who, *ceteris paribus*, held certificates granted by the universities. The Senatus avoided the first objection of the Commissioners, by omitting the stipulation which required attendance upon any classes in the university; and the second, by resolving that the scheme should be carried on only so long as it was self-supporting. It has also been made a condition of the establishment of the scheme, that the initiatory expenses should not fall upon the university funds, but should be guaranteed by those outside the university who had requested them to undertake the office of examiners. As the required sum is being rapidly made up, there seems to be no doubt that the Edinburgh Local Examinations will be inaugurated next year.

A Board of Management, consisting of the Professors in the Faculty of Arts, with representatives from the other Faculties, has been appointed by the Senatus; and the Board is now engaged in arranging with Local Committees in prominent centres, chiefly in the south of Scotland, for holding the examinations in those towns contemporaneously with those held in Edinburgh. The towns recommended as suitable centres of examination are, Dumfries, Lanark, Perth, Dunbar, Wigtown, Stirling, Forfar, Jedburgh, Ayr, Cupar-Fife, Montrose, to which Glasgow and Dundee will probably be added. The examinations will only be held in those places at which a minimum number of candidates is guaranteed by the locality. It is intended to make the minimum number twenty-five, *i. e.*, that no examination shall be held at any place which fails to provide at least twenty-five ordinary certificate fees, or £25.

The Examiners will be some of the Professors in the Faculty of Arts, with whom will be associated an equal, or a greater, number of graduates of the university.

As in the case of the Oxford and Cambridge Examinations, as well as of those of the Privy Council and Society of Arts, the same papers will be given in all the centres at the same time.

Much of the success of the scheme will depend upon the nature of the examination and its require-

ments. In order to satisfy schoolmasters on this subject, we have much pleasure in laying before our readers the following Provisional Programme of the Examination proposed to be held in June 1865. These regulations afford to candidates great latitude in the selection of subjects; but they aim at giving a higher character to the examination, by requiring of all candidates a minimum of attainment in Latin. In the programme of special subjects, alternative authors have in most cases been prescribed, from a desire not to fix down too rigidly the course of instruction in the schools preparing pupils for the examination. Candidates who aim at merely a "pass" certificate may select either of these authors; those who wish to pass with honours may take both. In regard to all other particulars, the programme is sufficiently explicit:—

(Provisional Programme.)

EDINBURGH UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

REGULATIONS FOR THE YEAR 1865.

The Examinations will commence on Tuesday, June 29, 1865, at 9 o'clock a.m.

I.—EXAMINATION OF CANDIDATES FOR ORDINARY CERTIFICATES.

Candidates for Ordinary Certificates must be above thirteen and under fifteen years of age on the day when the Examination begins.

1. Common Subjects.

All Candidates for Ordinary Certificates must undergo a satisfactory Examination in the following subjects, *viz.* :—

I. ENGLISH—

Reading aloud, with proper accent and emphasis, some passage from an English author.

Writing from dictation.

The Elements of English Grammar and Analysis.

English Composition: the structure of sentences.

II. HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—

The Outlines of British History since the union of the Crowns of England and Scotland.

The general Geography of Europe. The Candidate will also be required to fill in an Outline Map of one of the countries of Europe, marking the mountain chains, the rivers, the coast features, and the chief towns.

III. LATIN—

Grammar; with a passage from *Cæsar De Bello Gallico*, Book I., for translation into English, and parsing.

IV. ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC.

V. SCRIPTURE HISTORY—

The Book of Genesis, the Four Gospels, and the Acts of the Apostles.

* * * This part of the Examination will not be required in the case of those Candidates whose Parents or Guardians give sufficient reasons for their declining it.

2. Special Subjects.

With the foregoing common subjects must be con-

* In the case of Female Candidates, LATIN will be optional.

joined three *special* or *selected* subjects. The special subjects must be selected by the Candidate from the four following Departments (indicated respectively by the letters A, B, C, D), viz., Languages; English Literature, &c.; Mathematics and Natural Philosophy; Physics, or Modern Sciences. Not more than two subjects can be selected from one Department.

A.

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES.

1. *Higher Latin*—

A passage from the Catiline of Sallust and Virgil's *Æneid*, Books I. II. III., for translation into English, with grammatical and general questions.

An easy passage of English, with the Latin words supplied, for translation into Latin.

2. *Greek*—

A passage from Xenophon and from the Acts of the Apostles, Anabasis (Books I. II.), for translation into English, with grammatical and general questions.

3. *French*—

A passage from an ordinary French author, for translation into English, with grammatical and general questions.

An easy English passage for translation into French.

4. *German*—

A passage from an ordinary German author, for translation into English, with grammatical and general questions.

An easy English passage for translation into German.

B.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, &c.

1. *Higher English*—

(a.) A passage from Cowper's *Task*, Book I., or Thomson's *Spring*, for parsing and analysis, with questions on Etymology of Words,

(b.) Composition; Narration and Description in Prose.

2. *History*—

England and Scotland, with relative Geography.

C.

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

1. *Mathematics*—

Arithmetic.

Euclid, Books I. II.

The elements of Algebra, as far as Simple Equations.

2. *Natural Philosophy*—

The *Properties of Matter*.

The *Parallelogram of Forces* and the *Mechanical Powers*.

A general knowledge of the Earth's dimensions and figure; the cause of the Seasons; the distances, motions, and physical character of the Heavenly Bodies.

Such information may be gained from the following among other works:—*Tracts by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge*; Newth's *First Book of Natural Philosophy*; Whewell's *Mechanical Euclid*; Carpenter's *Mechanical Philosophy*.

D.

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY AND NATURAL HISTORY.

1. *Chemistry*—

The Candidates will be chiefly examined in the more simple laws of Affinity and Equivalents, and in the

Chemistry of the Elements which constitute air and water. Elementary Facts on Heat and Electricity. (Candidates may consult Fowne's or Wilson's *Chemistry*, and Galloway's *First Steps in Chemistry*.)

2. *Zoology*—

The general characters of Animals, and the leading groups into which the Animal Kingdom is divided. (Consult Paterson's *Zoology for Schools*; or Milne Edwards's *Cours Élémentaire de Zoologie*, either in the original French or in the English translation.

3. *Botany*—

General questions on the Classification of Plants, and on their distribution over the globe.

British Plants and parts of Plants will be given for description.

4. *Physiology*—

Questions regarding the special functions of Digestion, Secretion, the Circulation, and Respiration.

Candidates who satisfy the conditions of the preceding Programme will receive an ORDINARY CERTIFICATE, signed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University. The Certificate will specify the subjects in which the Candidate has satisfied the Examiners.

II. EXAMINATION OF CANDIDATES FOR HONORARY CERTIFICATES.

Candidates for HONORARY CERTIFICATES must be above fifteen, and under eighteen years of age, on the day when the Examination begins.

1. *Common Subjects*.

The common subjects already specified as necessary in the case of all Candidates for the ORDINARY CERTIFICATE shall be required from every applicant for the HONORARY CERTIFICATE, unless he is the holder of an *Ordinary Certificate*, when further examination in these subjects will be dispensed with.

2. *Special Subjects*.

With the foregoing common subjects (or with the Certificate) must be conjoined a satisfactory examination in three *special* or *selected* subjects. The special subjects must be selected by the Candidate from the Departments already indicated by the letters A, B, C, D. Not more than two subjects can be selected from any Department.

A.

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE.

1. *Higher Latin*—

Passages from Horace, *Odes*, Books I. II.; Livy, Books I. or XXI, for translation into English; with grammatical and general questions. Candidates must also translate from English into Latin. A passage from some Latin book not previously prescribed will be given for translation into English.

2. *Greek*—

Homer, *Iliad*, Book VI., with the general principles of the structure of Epic hexameter.

Herodotus, Book VII.

An easy passage from some other Greek author, to be translated into English.

Greek composition. A piece of simple English prose to be turned into Greek.

3. *French*—

A satisfactory power of translation and retranslation.

4. *German*—

A satisfactory power of translation and retranslation.

B.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND PHILOSOPHY.

1. *Higher English*—

(a) Passages from Shakspeare's *Macbeth*, and Bacon's *Essays*, for Analysis, with Grammatical and Philological Questions.

(b.) Composition: Prose Themes, and the principles of Versification.

2. *History*—

Modern Europe, with Relative Geography, and Ancient Rome.

3. *Logic*—

Logical Analysis of Notions and Names, Propositions, Reasonings, and Fallacies, as in Whately's *Elements*, and Thomson's *Outlines of the Laws of Thought*.

4. *Political Economy*—

The Examination will relate to the subjects discussed in the first two books of Smith's *Wealth of Nations*. (See M'Culloch's edition.)

C.

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

1. *Mathematics*—

Higher Arithmetic.

Euclid, Books I.—VI. Algebra to Quadratics. Logarithms, and their application to Trigonometry.

2. *Natural Philosophy*—

Mechanics.—Statics, so far as given in Snowball's or Goodwin's *Mechanics*. Dynamics, so far as uniformly accelerated Motion, Projectiles, Centrifugal Force, and Direct Impact.

3. *Hydrostatics, &c.*, as in Goodwin's *Course of Mathematics*—

The steam-engine. The leading doctrines of Heat, including Latent and Specific Heat.

4. *Astronomy*, as in Herschell's smaller Treatise—

In the next Examination questions will be put on *Elementary Optics and Acoustics*, leaving *Electricity and Magnetism* for another year.

Ganot's is a useful Text-book for experimental Physics.

D.

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY AND NATURAL HISTORY.

1. *Chemistry*—

The general principles of Chemistry, including a good practical understanding of Equivalents. The Chemistry

of the more common metals. The Chemistry of the substances used as food. The testing of the common bases and acids will be required. (Fowne's or Gregory's *Chemistry*, Liebig's *Physiology and Chemistry of Food*, and Johnston's *Chemistry of Common Life*, may be consulted.)

2. *Natural History*—

The structural and physiological characters of the sub-kingdoms and classes of Animals.

The order of succession of the British Sedimentary Rocks, and the general characters and geological distribution of Organic Remains. (Dallas's *Manual of Zoology*, Page's *Text-book on Geology*, and Lyell's *Manual of Geology*, may be consulted.)

3. *Botany*—

Questions on Vegetable Physiology in general and on the special functions of the parts of Plants.

Parts of Plants will be given for description.

4. *Physiology*—

General questions on the processes of Nutrition; Secretion, Circulation, and the Nervous System, in themselves, and in their application to personal and public Health.

Candidates who satisfy these conditions shall receive an Honorary Certificate, signed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University, and specifying the subjects in which the Candidate has passed.

The successful Candidates, under the preceding Programme of Examination, shall be ranked in two Classes. The **FIRST CLASS** shall contain the names of those who have passed with distinction; the **SECOND CLASS** those who have passed satisfactorily.

Candidates will be examined in Edinburgh, and in such other places as the Board may appoint.

Local Committees wishing to have Examinations held in their several districts, may at once obtain all necessary information by applying to the Secretary to the Board at the University.

Printed Forms, on which Candidates are to make application, will be prepared by the 1st of March 1865, and must be returned, duly filled up, to the several Local Secretaries, or to the General Secretary in Edinburgh, before the 15th of April following.

Fees.—Every Candidate for an Ordinary Certificate is required to pay a fee of 20s., every Candidate for an Honorary Certificate, a fee of 30s. These fees must be paid on or before the 15th April 1865. No fee can be returned under any circumstances.



FORSYTH'S LIFE OF CICERO.*

IT is probable that there will always be a considerable variety of opinion with regard to Cicero. He was himself a man of extremes, at one time in a state of supreme self-satisfaction, and

soon after in a condition of abject depression. We find him at one time heaping upon a contemporary the most unmeasured abuse, and after the lapse of a few months we see him laud the same individual in equally unmeasured language. In modern times his critics have partaken of his weakness. They may, generally speaking, be divided into those who love him, and those who hate him. The party of hatred are decidedly in the ascendant for the present. The last historian of Rome, Mommsen, pours unmitigated abuse on him. As a statesman he is "ohne Einsicht, Ansicht, und Absicht," "a short-sighted egoist." His real worth as a literary man depends solely on his style. He was rich in words, poor in thought (vol. iii. p. 598). In our own country the opinion prevalent in regard to Cicero has been mainly derived from Middleton, who can see no blemish in his hero. Mr Forsyth thinks that the time has come when the life of Cicero ought to be re-written for the English public, and he has attempted the task. We think he has been in a remarkable degree successful. It is an eminently enjoyable book. From beginning to end the interest never flags. We think also he has succeeded in giving a fair representation of Cicero as he lived and thought. His great object has been to let facts speak for themselves, and accordingly he has based his narrative mainly on the speeches and correspondence of Cicero. He has withheld nothing out of partiality to the hero of the book. And in every particular case we think Mr Forsyth has given his judgment impartially. He praises Cicero for his behaviour during his consulship, but he condemns him for his weakness in abandoning himself to despair because he was banished the city. He gives a faithful picture of his vacillation between Pompey and Cæsar. He goes minutely into his scandalous change of opinion in regard to Appius, his quarrel with his brothers, and his unseemly and extravagant joy at the assassination of Cæsar. He portrays in vivid colours his manliness in his orations against An-

tony, and he gives an exceedingly interesting account of the circumstances accompanying the death of Cicero. He is also just in his remarks on the characters of Pompey and Cæsar, or rather, he lets us into the right point of view through an accurate narrative of the events, and a clear exposition of Cicero's sentiments in regard to them. There is one person alone in the course of his narrative, for whom his strong partiality has led him to overrate the case. This is the wife of Cicero. He accuses Plutarch of calumniating her, and with considerable gallantry takes upon himself a defence of her character. He calls her an "affectionate and true-hearted woman," a statement which he does not prove, and of which we fear proof would be difficult.

Mr Forsyth has brought to his task qualifications which are rarely combined. He has a thorough knowledge of his subject, having read with care not only the ancient authorities, but all the great modern writers on the subject, German as well as English. He is also widely read in modern history, and many ancient occurrences are aptly illustrated by parallels from more recent times. He has a keen eye for the differences between ancient and modern modes of thinking and acting; and in short descriptions of peculiar habits and customs, he gives his readers much insight into ancient manners. He also writes a good English style; and his book is nicely printed and beautifully illustrated.

We do not think, however, that Mr Forsyth has done all that could be done by a biographer of Cicero. He has not attempted to give unity to the character of Cicero, or to penetrate the central motives which produced the dominations of Cæsar and Augustus. We find no philosophy in this Life of Cicero. And, accordingly, we are not surprised to meet with statements which other portions of his work will not support. Thus he describes Cicero as "one of the purest and most virtuous of the ancients, and in some respects to approach nearest to the character of a Christian gentleman" (vol. i. p. 91). There is something like a contradiction when he says in one place (vol. i. p. 176), that Cæsar "was unscrupulously and selfishly ambitious;" and in another, that "he was a large-hearted man" (vol. ii. p. 127).

Mr Forsyth has also given no proper account of Cicero's philosophical works, and his estimate of their merits is extravagant. He places Cicero's *De Officiis* above Aristotle's *Ethics* (vol. ii. p.

* *Life of Marcus Tullius Cicero.* By William Forsyth, M.A., Q.C., Author of "*Hortensius*," &c., and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. In Two Volumes, with Illustrations. London: Murray. 1864.

284); he makes no allusion to the Greek sources from which Cicero borrowed so largely, and there is no attempt to estimate his place as a philosopher, and his influence on succeeding thinkers.

There are also some minor blemishes, such as are incident to every human work. He has had to contract the size of his book, and, in so doing, he has sometimes made awkward omissions, as in vol. i. p. 92, the omission of a clause deprives the subsequent sentence of all meaning. This is the case also in some of the speeches. There are likewise a few awkward blunders, such as "*Acta mensis maiæ*," vol. i. p. 206, and *Familia* "is the word *invariably* used to denote the domestic slaves of a Roman family, and is never applied in any other sense" (vol. i. p. 250, note), an extraordinary statement as coming from such a thorough student of Cicero as Mr Forsyth. We shall not

part from Mr Forsyth in a spirit of fault-finding, but thanking him heartily for a deeply interesting and able work, we shall extract a note which is connected with scholarship, and may be fresh to some of our readers, though the fact stated has long since found its way into some of our best Latin Grammars:—

Cui bono? These two words have perhaps been oftener misapplied than any in the Latin language. They are constantly translated or used in the sense of "What good is it?" "To what end does it serve?" Their real meaning is, "Who gains by it?" "To whom is it an advantage?" And the origin of the expression was this:—When L. Cassius, who is said to have been a man of stern severity, sat as *quæstor iudicii* in a trial for murder, he used to advise the *judices* to inquire, when there was a doubt as to the guilty party, who had a motive for the crime, who would gain by the death; in other words, *Cui bono fuerit?*



ADMISSION OF GIRLS TO UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.



THE movement for the admission of Girls to University Local Examinations was commenced upwards of a year ago by a Committee formed for the purpose in London. The experiment made in London last year, in connection with the Cambridge Local Examinations, was completely successful. Encouraged by this success, the Committee propose to extend the movement, and have issued the following Statement with this view:—

"The Committee formed in furtherance of this object desire to supply the want which they have reason to believe is widely felt, of some publicly recognised examination for girls. It has been found that the more painstaking teachers feel at a loss for some definite aim and standard to guide them in their work, while at the same time they would be glad to be able to offer some evidence to the public that their exertions have not been unsuccessful.

"The Committee are of opinion that the University Local Examinations are especially adapted to meet this deficiency as testing thoroughness in the elementary branches of education, which in girls' schools are often neglected, and as giving so wide a range in the optional subjects as to make it quite possible for a well-instructed girl to obtain a certificate, without in any way overstepping the usual boundaries of female education. A collateral advantage which might be expected to result from these examinations would be that of calling attention to the state of upper and

middle-class female education, a subject as yet less known and less considered than its great importance would seem to demand.

"The Committee are fully alive to the danger of overworking young persons of either sex. It appears, however, that in almost all girls' schools a yearly or half-yearly examination takes place, and it is believed that an improvement in the character of the examination would not materially increase the stimulus, though it would greatly add to the value of the results. It is obvious that an external test, applied without distinction to all who choose to avail themselves of it, is a more certain means of ascertaining the comparative efficiency of various educational establishments, than private examinations of individual schools can be, however carefully conducted. It should also be remembered that, in the present state of female education, certificates for which girls only compete with each other, carry very little weight. No one knows how much scholarship they represent, or how far the standard may have been lowered to meet the incompetency of the candidates.

"While urging these considerations, the Committee are not unmindful of the paramount importance of guarding against anything like undue publicity. Recent experience has satisfied them that the admission of girls to the Local Examinations can be so provided for as to avoid any risks of this sort. No scheme of public or mixed instruction is proposed. The attendance at

the examination would take place only once in the year—probably for most of the individual candidates only once in their lives—and the sanction of their parents would always be indispensable. The practical possibility of working the scheme is no longer a matter of conjecture. By the kind permission of the Cambridge Syndicate, a private examination of an experimental character was held in London in connection with the Cambridge Local Examinations for 1863. The Committee were allowed to make use of the papers prepared by the University Examiners, who consented to look over and report upon the answers. The examination of the girls was held simultaneously with that of the boys, and the University Regulations were strictly observed. Eighty-three girls, chiefly the daughters of professional men, underwent examination. The names were sent in at a fortnight's notice, six weeks only being allowed for preparation. That so large a number of candidates should have been

presented, on so short a notice, is in itself a sufficient indication that the advantages of such an examination are understood and appreciated. In every point of view, the experiment was completely successful, and a strong desire was expressed by both teachers and students that it might be the first step towards the establishment of a regular and permanent system.

COMMITTEE.

MISS BOSTOCK.	W. B. HODGSON, Esq.,
MISS ISA CRAIG.	LL.D.
THE RECORDER OF LONDON, Q.C.	MRS MANNING.
G. W. HASTINGS, Esq.	H. R. TOMKINSON, Esq.
JAMES HEYWOOD, Esq.	MRS HENSLEIGH WEDGEWOOD.
Treasurer, LADY GOLDSMID, St John's Lodge, Regent's Park, N.W.	
Hon. Sec., MISS DAVIES, 17 Cunningham Place, London, N.W.	

Notices of Books.

A Dictionary of the English Language. By ROBERT GORDON LATHAM, M.A., M.D., F.R.S., &c. Founded on that of Dr Samuel Johnson, & edited by the Rev. H. J. Todd, M.A. With numerous emendations and additions. Part I. Longmans, &c., &c. March 1864.

Every one knows that the most defective part of Johnson's Dictionary was the etymology; but in many of its features it still deserves consideration as the first great English Dictionary. Though in etymology it was hardly abreast of the scholarship of its day; yet its deficiencies in this respect have been made more glaring by the researches of modern philology in the Teutonic stock of languages, a department of the science which did not come into prominence till long after Johnson's time. For this branch of philology in connection with the English language no one has done more than Dr Latham. There is no one whose opinion on points of etymology is entitled to greater weight. With Dr Johnson, then, still as our lexicographer, and Dr Latham as our etymologist, we should have a thoroughly good and reliable English dictionary—a work worthy of our language, of our literature, and of our science.

And such a work, within certain limits, that, of which the first part is now before us, promises to be.

Dr Latham gives first the words in alphabetical order, and properly accented; second, the part of speech of each word; third, its derivation; fourth, its definition; and fifth, an extract to prove its use in standard literature, and to illustrate the definition. When a word is used in different senses, or has different definitions, an extract is given for each. In the etymologies, the editor has swept away all conjectural derivations, and has given only those that are known and accepted by scholars. Trusting to his own knowledge and judgment, he has refrained from all speculation, and simply given after each word what he conceives to be its proper and ascertained origin, only in a few cases of doubtful words (which are usually followed by a ?) adding "extracts from writers on etymology."

We are not sure that he has acted so wisely in excluding the cognate derivatives in other modern languages. Not only is it interesting to trace the same root through its representatives in different languages, but much light is often thrown upon peculiar uses of words in our own language by this comparative study. It is at the same time

important to keep prominently before the minds of all who are in the habit of consulting such works the relations (both of co-ordination and sub-ordination) existing between different languages of the same family. For example, on comparing Dr Latham's pages with a "trial" sheet of the Philological Society's English Dictionary,—the first great project for including in a Dictionary everything which can be known about every word in the language,—we find the following marked difference. After the word *Affect* in the former there is no etymology, but we are supposed to refer back to the noun *affect* (which the Philological Society very properly marks as *obsolete*) after which we have simply [Lat. *affectus*]. After the same word in the Society's Dictionary we have this full and suggestive note: [Lat. *affect* (*are*); Fr. *affecter*; Ital. *affettare*; Span. *afectar*; see *afaytye*, the earlier verb, from Lat. *affectare* through Fr. *affaitier*; *af* = *ad* to, *fec* or *fac*, make or do, *t* frequentative; *fac* is the causal of *fu*, be; cp., Skr. *bhā*, be, causal *bhāv-i*.] Dr Latham gives the direct root of the verb and no more. The Society tries to give its history, from its original stem through the whole family of words.

This reminds us of another point which has been wholly omitted by Dr Latham. He has made no attempt to trace the history of a word in the literature, to ascertain when a word was first used, what meanings it had at different periods, and, if it be obsolete, when it became so. We do not urge this as a complaint against Dr Latham's dictionary. It is far too stupendous a piece of work for one man to accomplish. We merely note the fact that there is one department which his excellent dictionary makes no attempt to supply; and we may add that this is the great work at which the members of the Philological Society are now labouring, on which they have been engaged for some years, and which will engage them for some years to come.

Dr Latham's definitions are both precise and concise; and the distinction between the different meanings and applications of the same word is always drawn with extreme care and logical precision.

He has also, for the first time we believe in an English dictionary, uniformly distinguished verbal substantives in *-ing* (A. S. *-ung*) from the participial form in *-ing* (A. S. *-ende*), and the gerundive form also in *-ing* (A. S. *-anne*). He has entered the former in their alphabetical position as separate words, calling them "verbal abstracts"—not a very convenient name, by the way, for a part of speech.

We must further commend Dr Latham's work

for its beautifully clear and well-marked type, and for its distinct and convenient arrangement. We may notice, as one of the minor helps to consultation, that besides the initial catch-letters at the top of each column, the first and the last word on each page are printed in small capitals at its outside upper corner. We are sure that this work will be heartily welcomed by all who are engaged in education, giving, as it does, full, yet concise information, under the sanction of an authoritative name. Our limits have permitted us this month to do no more than explain its general features. We hope, as the publication proceeds, to be able to give our readers from time to time examples of Dr Latham's *dicta* on doubtful or contested etymologies.

The Adelphi of Terence, with English Notes. By the Rev. WHARTON B. MARRIOTT, M.A. and B.C.L., formerly Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, and late Assistant Master at Eton. London: Rivingtons. 1863.

The value of this edition of the "Adelphi of Terence" depends upon its etymological notes, and its comparative philology. Mr Marriott has taken his text from the edition of Fleckeisen, without any change, except in three places. In one passage he strikes out the dots employed by Fleckeisen to indicate the loss of a line. In other two he has proposed emendations which seem to us unsound. In the case of one he would have been saved all trouble if he had as carefully consulted commentators as he has discussed comparative philology. He affirms *obsonare cum fide* to be untranslatable, though Peslet had expressed the meaning of the phrase distinctly as "*emta in foro ac macello fideliter domum referre*." We wish Mr Marriott had determined his own text. Fleckeisen is occasionally extremely rash, and has sometimes introduced words into the text which are not found in any manuscripts, and are the mere guesses of Ritschl.

The region of comparative philology is a slippery one, and Mr Marriott has accordingly fallen into several conjectures, which he would have avoided had he been acquainted with some of the best German works on the subject. Thus he derives *oppido*, the adverb, and *oppidum* the town, from *ob-pedem*, in ignorance of the analogy which has been hinted between *oppido* and *ὑπερδωρ*. He also, in the same note, states the derivation of *urbs* as if it were certain that it was the same as *orbis*, though Curtius has connected it with *cur-vare*, and Corssen prefers the Sanscrit *ardha* as

the root, while mentioning both *orbis* and another root, *or*.

Notwithstanding a considerable number of such lapses, we can confidently recommend the work as a scholarly production, and as likely to be useful to those who have not time to study the subject of Latin etymology in larger works. Mr Marriott has brought together a great deal of matter which at present is to be found only in the stiff Prolegomena of Ritschl to the *Trinummus* and equally stiff commentary of Lachmann on *Lucretius*, and in the books of *Diez*. The edition bears marks of great care and diligence, and is the best introduction we have in English to the study of the recent changes which have been introduced into Latin orthography by *Lachmann*, *Ritschl*, and their followers.

Tales of Thebes and Argos. By the Rev. GEORGE W. COX, M.A., late Scholar of Trinity College, Oxford. London: Longmans. 1864.

We have here a worthy companion to Mr Cox's "Mythological Tales," and "Tales of the Gods and Heroes," works which have done more than any others to diffuse, in a popular form, a sound knowledge of the modern science of comparative mythology. The present volume is appropriately dedicated to Professor Max Müller, whose researches and writings have placed the science on its true basis. It is hardly necessary to add that Mr Cox adopts the philological method of that eminent scholar; but he illustrates it with a clearness, a copiousness, and an originality which entitle him to the best thanks alike of scholars and of school-boys. In the able and exhaustive introduction, Mr Cox again combats Mr Gladstone's theory—as he had already done in that to the "Tales of the Gods and Heroes,"—that Greek mythology is the corruption of an original dogmatic revelation, as well as the theory of Dr Döllinger, that it was a heterogeneous combination of Egyptian mysticism and the orgiastic ritualism of the East, with the rude nature-worship of the older and less civilised ages; and he conclusively shews that the dynamic legends of Thebes and of Argos are but repetitions, in different forms, of the Greek solar myths. The tales themselves are told with beautiful simplicity and poetic feeling. In none of the legends is this more conspicuous than in that of Perseus, and his connection with Medusa, Danaë, and Andromeda, which, reverting again to the expository introduction, is thus explained and translated:—

"The great dynastic story of Argos is made of a solar myth, recounted at length in the adventures of Perseus,

and repeated in those of Heracles. Perseus is the child of the golden shower and of Danaë, Daphné, Dahanâ, the dawn; and he is doomed, like other solar children, to be the slayer of the sire to whom he owes his life. His weapons are those of Apollo and Hermes. The sword of Chrysaor is in his hand, the golden sandals on his feet. His journey to the land of the Graie, the dim twilight, is only another form of the journey of Heracles to the garden of the Hesperides. When from the house of the Graie he went to the cave of the Gorgons, the story sprang from the mythical phrase, 'The sun is gone from the twilight land to fight with the powers of darkness.' But night has a twofold meaning. There is the darkness which must yield to the sun, and die; and there is the absolute darkness, which the sun can never penetrate. The former is the mortal Medusa, the latter her deathless sisters. The story ran that Medusa compared her own beauty with that of Athens: but the solemn grandeur of the starlit night could be no rival for the radiant goddess on whom acted the full glory of Zeus and Phoebus. When from the Gorgon land he wandered to the shores of Libya, the story introduced an adventure which recurs in a hundred forms. Andromeda, Ariadne, Brenhyldr, Aslanga, Hesione, Déiapiers, Philonoe, Medeia, Iocasté, were all won after the slaughter of monsters or serpents; while the triumphant return of Danaë with her son to Argos, after his toil is ended, is but the meeting of Heracles with Iolê, the return of the sun in the evening to the mother that bore him in the morning."—Pp. 53, 54.

We very strongly recommend this volume to the attention of classical teachers.

Elementary Greek Grammar, containing a series of Greek and English Exercises for Translation, with the requisite Vocabularies, and an Appendix on the Homeric verse and dialect. By Dr KÜHNER, translated by S. H. TAYLOR, LL.D. A new Edition, revised and edited, with numerous Emendations and Additions, including upwards of a thousand examination questions, by CHARLES W. BATEMAN, LL.B., sometime Scholar of Trinity College, Dublin. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. Pp. 663. 12mo.

The German original of the above work, first published in 1837, is not to be confounded with Kühner's School Grammar, which appeared in 1836, and was intended for the upper classes in the German *gymnasia*, much less with Kühner's largest grammar, the first edition of which was completed in 1835. Of this last work, well known to English students through Jelf's translation, the one now brought out by Mr Bateman in English guise, is, so to speak, the grandchild, and is "intended expressly for beginners." Our main objection, particularly with reference to the purpose of the book, is that the grandchild is too like the grandfather.

How is it that an elementary grammar, "intended expressly for beginners," has been swelled to the bulk of nearly 700 pages? Not alone by the insertion of exercises and vocabularies, which make the work a delectus and lexicon, as well as a grammar; for, after deducting these and the examination questions, 400 pages still remain to be accounted for. This enormous bulk is due to the discussion of subjects not coming properly within the scope of an elementary grammar "intended expressly for beginners," and to the plethoric treatment of such as do. The admirable appendix, of fully 30 pp., on the Homeric dialect, is surely not suitable for beginners; and a good many of the introductory sections are marked with a cross, to indicate that they should be postponed, just because they are unsuitable to beginners. For an example of plethoric treatment, see pp. 308-310. In these three pages, the nature of a sentence, including subject, predicate and copula, is explained as minutely as if the pupil were not expected to bring, from his previous studies in English and Latin, any knowledge whatever of these matters. On the opposite supposition, these three pages might have been profitably condensed into one. What a pitch of superabundance the examples reach may be seen at p. 143, and p. 311. To cite one instance from p. 143: After stating that the perf. inf. pas. is accented on the penult, and illustrating that by the examples *τετιύφθαι*, *βεβουλιύσθαι*, what is gained by adding *τετιμύσθαι*, *πεφιλήσθαι*, *μεμισθώσθαι*? what but bulk? Beginners are only confounded by a needless multiplicity of examples.

In short, Mr Bateman's book is not suitable for beginners, especially young beginners. The very exercises, more or less on the Ollendorffian method—an admirable feature, calculated to inspire the study of Greek with a life to which it has long been a stranger—seem beyond a beginner's strength: witness the first one, the vocabulary of which contains upwards of thirty words, fully a score of them being verbs to be used in the pres. ind. and pres. imper. of the three voices. The very style is not for young beginners: witness the following in the explanation of a single sentence, p. 308:—"The Greek language expresses the relation of ideas, sometimes by inflexion, e.g., *Τὸ ῥόδον θάλλει*," &c., two other examples being added with the usual superabundance. Would that phrase, "the relation of ideas," be anything but a stumbling-block to young beginners?

On the other hand, Mr Bateman's manual will render the greatest service to adult beginners, who bring to their work a strong will and some previous training, and to students who wish to revise

their former studies in Greek grammar. Such of them as revise with an examination in view will be particularly grateful for the 1242 questions on Greek etymology and syntax. On every subject connected with Greek grammar, excepting prosody, the information is, for ordinary uses, exhaustive.

Virgil; the Bucolics, Georgics, and Æneid Complete, with English Notes, Explanatory and Critical, and Metrical Analysis of the Æneid. By ROBERT CAMPBELL, Esq., Head Master of the High School, Waterford, and ROSCOE MORGAN, A.B., ex-Classical-Scholar, Trinity College, Dublin. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. Dublin: W. B. Kelly. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd. 1864.

The text of this edition of Virgil is neatly printed, and accurately edited. It contains, however, none of the changes which modern recensions have with good reason introduced. Reference is occasionally made to these in the notes.

The notes are exceedingly short, generally consisting of mere translations of clauses or phrases. When they attempt anything farther, such as the explanation of a grammatical difficulty, their conciseness is apt to prevent them being intelligible to a learner. They shew acquaintance with the best commentators of Virgil. A Life of Virgil is prefixed, with the signature W. B. K., the initials of the Dublin publisher.

The Afternoon Lectures on English Literature delivered in the Theatre of the Museum of Industry, Dublin, in May and June 1863. London: Bell & Daldy. 1863.

These lectures add another to the many indications we have lately had of the increased attention which is being devoted to the study of English literature. They give proof, amongst other things, that Ireland is well supplied with the means of diffusing and of cultivating that study; for two of the ablest lectures in the series are contributed by the Professors of English Literature in Dublin and Cork respectively.

The course was an experimental one, designed for ladies and professional men—an audience of a class, it appears, somewhat higher, socially and intellectually, than the ordinary members of mechanics' institutes. The course is not a systematic one, each lecturer having chosen his own subject, irrespectively of those selected by his colleagues. Sometimes their paths cross one another, as when both Professor Rushton and

Professor Houston touch upon the early English drama; but this is no disadvantage so long as harmony of opinion prevails.

The successive Lectures are—by the Rev. James Byrne, "On the Influence of the National Character on English Literature;" by Professor Rush-ton, "On the Classical and Romantic Schools of English Literature;" by Dr Ingram, "On Shakespeare;" by Professor Houston, "On the English Drama;" by the Rev. Edward Whately, "On John Foster the Essayist;" and by Mr M'Donnell, "On the Ballads and Lyrical Poetry of Ireland."

The lectures have not aimed so much at advancing anything original or strikingly new—for this their subjects did not afford much scope—as at gathering up and embodying, in a clear and intelligible form, the most reliable information, and the soundest criticisms, on the subjects severally dealt with. In this aim—which is all that popular lecturers should attempt—they have admirably succeeded; and have produced a delightful volume, which the scholar will peruse with pleasure, and the learner with profit.

The Queen's English: Stray Notes on Speaking and Spelling. By HENRY ALFORD, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. London: Strahan & Co. 1864.

Dean Alford's "Plea for the Queen's English" needs no introduction at our hands. Yet we are anxious to recommend the "Stray Notes" here gathered together, very specially to the attention of teachers, as a corrective to the too dogmatic and rule-bound doctrines on the subject which they commonly find in the books they teach from, and which, in consistency, they are expected to adopt and practise. The Dean's great principle is that there is a higher rule than those of the grammar-books,—the rule of common sense, which every man of intelligence may apply for himself. His secondary rule is the sanction of usage—a rule which must be applied more cautiously than the other, if we would avoid many of the common faults and vulgarisms which the Dean so happily comments upon. The "Notes" are well called "Stray." They are not systematized in any ostensible way, but ramble on pleasantly from point to point, and gather wit and wisdom as they go. Let every teacher place the elegant volume on his shelf beside Cobbet's *Letters* and Trench's *Study of Words*; and, taking it down occasionally, let him read a few pages to his class after a surfeit of syntax; we are sure they will give him, and he the Dean, a hearty vote of thanks.

Thomson's Winter: With a Life of the Poet, Notes, Critical, Explanatory, and Grammatical, and Remarks on the Analysis of Sentences, with Illustrative Examples. For the use of Schools. By WALTER M'LEOD, F.R.G.S., &c. London: Longmans. 1864.

Mr M'Leod has followed up his edition of *Spring* with a companion volume of *Winter*, this being the work prescribed, under the head of English Grammar and Analysis, for junior candidates in the Oxford Local Examinations for the current year. The notes contain a great deal more information than is required for the special purpose to which the volume is adapted. The grammatical notes deal generally with the broader divisions of sentences, rather than with the more minute construction of words and phrases. In most cases these notes are satisfactory and to the point. In one instance, however, Mr M'Leod is quite wrong. We refer to the note on lines 297 to 304. To the lines,

"And, what is land, unknown,
What water, of the still unfrozen spring,
In the loose marsh, or solitary lake;"

he appends the note, "In full: what is water, of the still unfrozen spring, in the loose marsh, or solitary lake, being unknown." To shew that Mr M'Leod has entirely misunderstood the construction here, we have only to transcribe the whole passage:—

"Then throng the busy shapes into his mind,
Of cover'd pits unfathomably deep,
A dire descent beyond the power of frost;
Of faithless bogs; of precipices huge,
Smoothed up with snow; and what is land, unknown,
What water, of the still unfrozen spring,
In the loose marsh or solitary lake,
Where the fresh fountain from the bottom boils."

Now, "of the still unfrozen spring," &c., is evidently the last of a series of attributive phrases to "shapes" in the first line: shapes of covered pits, shapes of faithless bogs, shapes of huge precipices, and shapes of the still unfrozen spring, all throng into his mind. And to the last there is appended, as an adverbial of reason, the absolute phrase, "What is land, and what water, being unknown." According to Mr M'Leod's explanation, what would the conjunction "and" co-ordinate? This is perhaps the most difficult passage in the book; but for that very reason, it is the passage on which an editor should have been most accurate and explicit.

Arithmetic for the Use of Schools. By GEORGE HEFFEL, M.A., St John's College, Cambridge. London: Relfe Brothers. 1864.

For its clear and sensible articles on some of the elementary properties of numbers, the peculiarities of recurring Decimals, and the nature of stocks and discount, we recommend this book to the notice of teachers. On each of the above subjects, as also in an appendix containing useful matter which could not well be embodied in a text-book, they will find much that may be turned to good account in their class lessons.

Our recommendation, however, can extend no further. In the other chapters, the work is very common-place, and, in some, far from satisfactory. On the important subject, proportion, we are told first to consider whether the proportion is *direct* or *indirect*; if the former, to remember that $\text{answer} = \text{term like answer} \times \frac{\text{term in demand}}{\text{term in supposition}}$; if the latter, that $\text{answer} = \text{term like answer} \times \frac{\text{term in supposition}}{\text{term in demand}}$. In what respect this is superior to the good old "Rule of Three" we have failed to discover—certainly not in simplicity, nor, can we think, in conduciveness to mental culture.

The explanation of the rule for converting circulating decimals to vulgar fractions we would not care to put before a class; and if Mr Heffel expects boys of ordinary ability to reproduce it in another example, we shall have little difficulty in computing the value of his expectations. We find, in the preface, that the author attaches considerable importance to the whole of the examples being "original." This, we think, is a mistake. No single individual is able to construct a series of original examples sufficiently numerous and good for a complete text-book. They will either be found to fall considerably below the standard in excellence, or the originality will be more apparent than real.

The latter is, we think, the case here. The examples strike us as old friends with new faces; and we think the author would have done better had he disowned originality altogether in this department, and shewn a little more in the arrangement and "get up" of the book, which, in its present form, bears a suspicious resemblance to Colenso's Arithmetic.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Norwich School Sermons. By AUGUSTUS JESSOP M.A., Head master. London: Bell & Daldy.

School Sermons, Preached at Leamington College. By EDWARD ST. JOHN PARRY, M.A., Ball. Coll., Oxon. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

Principia Graeca. By H. E. HUTTON, M.A. Third Edition, Revised and Enlarged, with the addition of the Verbs. London: Murray.

A First Latin Dictionary. By WILLIAM SMITH, LL.D. London: Murray.

Bookkeeping by Double Entry. By HENRY MANLY. London: Stanford. 1864.

Sixty Melodies for Youth. By SILCHER. Adapted to English Words by F. L. SOPER. London: Novello.

Instantaneous French Exercises. By A. ALBITES, LL.B. New Edition. London: Longmans. 1864.

A Hand-Book of Rhetoric for Schools and Private Students, based on the Works of Stirling and Holmes. Revised and Enlarged by the Rev. Professor BARRY. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1864.

A Smaller Latin Grammar for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. E. MILLER, M.A., Author of "An Elementary Latin Grammar." London: Longmans. 1864.

The "Arranged as Said" Edition of Common Prayer. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

The Battle of the Standards. By JOHN TAYLOR, Author of "The Great Pyramid, Why was it Built?" London: Longmans. 1864.

Cayzer's Thousand Algebraical Tests. London: Griffith & Farran. 1864.

Latin Grammar for Beginners. By W. LEDR, Ph. D. London: Trübner & Co. 1864.

Latin Prose Composition: the Construction of Clauses, with Illustrations from Cicero and Caesar. By JOHN MASSIE, A.M. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd. 1864.

Sketches of Political Economy. Edited by J. S. LAURIE. London: Murby. 1864.

Sketches of the English Constitution. Edited by J. S. LAURIE. London: Murby. 1864.

Scotch College, Melbourne; Report and Honour List for 1863.

Elements of Designing, on the Development System. No. I. Edinburgh: Nimmo. 1864.

The Student's Chronological Maps. By D. BEALE, No. II., Ancient History. London: Bell & Daldy. 1863.

Correspondence.

THE WORKING OF THE REVISED CODE.

Will you kindly permit me to offer one or two remarks upon the working of the Revised Code, both with respect to teachers and inspectors?

In our parish we have a Church school and a Wesleyan, both under inspection, and both alike in many respects. The master of the former is your obedient servant, A. B., and he of the latter is his own particular friend, C. D. To the surprise of many, we, who ought to be jealous of each other, and strong rivals, are sworn bosom friends. He tells me everything, and in return I fear not to make a confidant of him. So, sir, on a Saturday afternoon we sometimes talk "shop," and although we both hate the system of cramming for an examination, and coaching up some to the neglect of others, yet we each have convicted the other of one or two grave faults. We have found ourselves actually refusing to admit dull *bairns*, because it was impossible to work them up by the examination. We have found ourselves quietly passing over those who could not possibly complete the 200 attendances before the date of inspection; and many a dull lad who has really completed his time gets many a hard knock because he is not as sharp as he ought to be. Thus the very faults which the Code was to remedy, I commit, in my zeal for "results." And now for the day of inspection. Everything being ready, enter the Rev. M. P., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors, accompanied by the vicar, and two or three of the committee. Everything in the school is at rest, and then the Rev. M. P. and I drive away at a general examination. He takes Scripture and catechism, I geography; he history, I grammar, and so on. Every copy-book is looked at, and every register, &c. &c., undergoes the most minute scrutiny, as in the days of old. Then he proceeds to try the "results." Of an average of ninety I present eighty. In reading and dictation I have not much to complain of, except for the sixth standard. Our local newspaper being, I suppose, too vulgar, he used a new novel, of which, in my innocence, I had never even heard, and each child was to read this, and make the *five* gentlemen (I include myself) understand it. Then the *writing*. Why call it writing when the *spelling* decides it? My *best writer* failed to a dead certainty. Then the arithmetic. Every sum was *dictated*, and was then to be worked right off. Standards 6, 5, and 4 used paper, but not an inch of scrap or slate was allowed; down went the sum from Her Majesty's Inspector's lips, and right or wrong it was worked. I may here mention that the examination for the *fourth* standard was a little more difficult than that for the election of pupil-teachers. The 3d, 2d, and 1st standards were alike; every sum given by dictation. I must admit, however, that doubtful ones had a second

chance. The 1st standard put down something like 10, 5, 17, 6, 19, 4, 18, 3. These were put down in a column, but if the 5, 6, 4, 3, were not placed exactly under the 0, 7, 9, and 8 respectively, it was no go. Then followed a little sharp practice in mental arithmetic.

At the conclusion, the Rev. M. P. congratulated me upon the examination; said I had been lucky; told the treasurer he would not have occasion to grumble at the grant. Her Majesty's Inspector also added that a school which received 8s. a-head on the average attendance was doing well, 9s. shewed positively good, while 10s. might be taken as the standard of excellence. Sir, after a dreary wait of fourteen weeks we have just received 8s. 8d. per head. But a good joke comes along with it. My school, which has been always well up in Scripture knowledge, is threatened with the 1-10th next year. Query, Is it Mr Lowe's fear of the clergy, that makes him so anxious about this *tithe*? By the way, the whole affair took two *whole days*.

Now for my friend C. D.'s school. The same average, 90, the same, or nearly the same number presented. Believe me, sir, N. R., Esq., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Wesleyan schools, went into my friend's school at ten o'clock, and polished off the whole examination, including that of half a dozen neighbouring pupil-teachers, in two hours. (I have heard of a Midland inspector who examined 150 in *everything* in four hours.) The reading was all done from the school books. Everything for arithmetic was carefully put on the *black-board*, and the upper standard worked their sums on slate before they copied them on paper. Not one word was said about Scripture, geography, grammar, history, or anything else. When the report comes I fully expect that my friend will have secured 10s. a-head. Two inspectors in the same town, the same parish, yea, the same street, and yet how widely they differ in their interpretation of the Code! I believe that both did what they considered their duty.

And now for a few *incidents*. In my school, the examination extending over two days, I lost many half-crowns (or 2s. 8d.) through absentees. William H. was absent. No one knew where he lived but James T. Accordingly James was sent in search; neither of them came back.—5s. 4d. lost. Mrs F. had no coals for the fire, and Charles had to go to buy them,—2s. 8d. lost over 1d. worth of coals. Many a good knock Charley received by way of preparation, but all these might have been spared. Johnny L. is a good writer, and ought to have passed. The inspector gave out five capital letters to be put on the slate, and the same in *small* letters. Johnny had only the capitals done. "Very good," said Her Majesty's inspector. "Now, my boy, put down a *small* D." The poor lad made a capital D, about half the size of

the other. "No, no," said the great official; "a smaller one." The child made a beautiful capital D, about the 1-20th of an inch, as pretty a D as I ever saw,—and—thus—he—FAILED. Now, N. R., Esq., said to a I. standard in the other school, put down all the large A B C's, and all the small a b c's, and all the figures up to 20. Then the slates were collected, and the result entered in the schedule.

Now, Mr Editor, is it meet and right that the funds of a poor school should depend upon such trifles as these? Let a teacher work never so hard, at the examination the grant may be 10s. a-head, or 8s., or perhaps even 5s., without any fault of the poor dominie, or of your obedient servant,

A. B.

THE SUPPRESSION OF INSPECTORS' REPORTS.

In a former number of the *Museum* (July 1863),

I drew attention to the fact, that in the last Educational Blue Book, Mr Lowe had suppressed the reports of three inspectors. It is not necessary that I should now bring forth arguments to shew the tyranny of this measure, or to point out the insult thus offered to the inspectors, and to the profession generally. All friends of education, however, will be glad to know that the subject is to be brought before Parliament. Lord Robert Cecil has given notice that he will, about the middle of April, bring forward a resolution condemning the mutilation of Inspectors' Reports. As Mr Lowe will no doubt oppose this resolution with his utmost ability, it is to be hoped that all who are interested in the matter will strengthen the hands of the honourable member by petitioning Parliament in favour of the resolution. The success which attended Mr Adderley's motion has shewn what may be done, when teachers and school managers are in earnest. BETA.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.); and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

1. In such expressions as (*Xen. iii. 478, 586*)

"Et tamen hanc pelago præterlabare necesse est," and

"Sed obscuro nubila cælo,"

In what case are *pelago* and *cælo*?

Q

2. In *Xen. Anab. iii.*—Why is the Middle, ἀναβαίνων, used at the beginning, and the Active, ἀναβαίνουσα, at the end of § 5?

Q

3. When, by whom first, and why, were the names now in use given to the six Latin cases, with more especial reference to the Genitive?

C.

4. The Treatise *De Placitis Philosophorum*, ascribed to Plutarch, has been satisfactorily proved by Vossius and Jonsius to be the work of some writer who flourished later than Plutarch of Chaeronea. Some have ascribed the work to the younger Plutarch, but have given no good reason for the opinion. Can any of your readers inform me if any recent writer has discussed this point minutely, and brought any evidence to settle the exact date of the treatise; or can any of your readers adduce such evidence? It is quoted in the *Cohortatio* of Justin, which I believe to be falsely attributed to Justin, and probably to belong to the third century. It is after this quoted by Eusebius as Plutarch's, so that it must have been written before the commencement of the fourth century. But are there any testimonies or any indications to fix the date within narrow limits?

J. D.

5. How should the following passage from Thomson's *Winter* be analysed:—

"Meantime the mountain billows, to the clouds
In dreadful tumult swelled, surge above surge,
Burst into chaos with tremendous roar,
And anchored navies from the stations drive,
Wild as the winds across the howling waste
Of mighty waters."

P. T.

6. *Presageful* is usually derived from *præ*, and *sagio* to perceive. But is not the *æ* in *sagio* short? Would it not be preferable to derive it from *sāgus*, in which the *ā* is long?

X.

7. What is the proper etymology of *yarely* and *yare*, used by Shakespeare in the first act of the *Tempest*?

X.

8. How should the following sentence be analysed:—"A friend who is now, I believe, near me, has said that prudence never can be used in the cause of vice?"

G.

9. What does Dr Morrell (*Gram. p. 87*) mean by "Relation (*i. e.*, intensity, proportion, equality, and inequality)?"

OMEGA.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

1. (*Proposed by Professor Kelland.*)—"If two circles cut one another, and from any point in the common chord produced there be drawn a line

cutting one circle, the distances of the points of intersection from that point will be to one another as the spaces of the tangents drawn to the other circles from those points."

2. (*Solution requested by G. O.*)—In a circle whose

diameter is 118, if the chord of an arc is 15, what is the chord of twice that arc?

3. (*Solution requested by "Sedes."*)—An annuity of £50 for 21 years is sold for £550; required the rate of interest allowed to the purchaser.

Open Council.

[Under this head we shall afford an opportunity to our Subscribers, each month, of discussing doubtful or contested points connected either with the politics of education, or with methods of instruction. We can do no more this month than make this announcement, and invite our Subscribers to interest themselves in the questions proposed for debate. It has been suggested that the first question for discussion should be—

"HAS GOVERNMENT BROKEN FAITH WITH THE CERTIFICATED SCHOOLMASTERS?"

We shall be glad to insert, in our next number, papers on either side of this question, under the following conditions:—

1st, The Names of the Writers shall be sent to the Editor,—not necessarily for publication.

2d, No paper shall exceed half a page in length.

Correspondents are invited to propose questions for discussion in subsequent Numbers.]

Education at Home.

THE form of statute for shortening proceedings at the conferring of degrees was passed in Congregation at Oxford on March 8.

In a Convocation held on March 8. in the Sheldonian Theatre, the statute for assigning duties to the Regius Professor of Greek and at the same time increasing his stipend was put to the House. The votes were taken, and the Senior Proctor, amid a dead silence, pronounced the words—"Majori parti placet." As the party in favour of the statute had not expected to be in a majority, a perfect tumult of applause followed. Soon, however, it became apparent that something was wrong. The Vice-Chancellor signed for silence; whispers arose that there had been "a mistake"—and the shouts having subsided the Senior Proctor again got up and announced—"Majori parti non placet." It was now the turn for the opponents of the statute to cheer, which they did the more lustily on account of their previous disappointment. The numbers were understood to be—

Non-placet	487
Placet	395
Majority against the statute	—72

On March 16., Mr Dodson moved the second reading of the Tests Abolition (Oxford) Bill, and explained that its object was to abolish the subscription now required for University degrees. Mr

Neate seconded the motion, and suggested that the course recently taken by the Convocation of Oxford, with regard to Professor Jowett, rendered it necessary that its boundaries should be extended. Sir W. Heathcote moved, as an amendment, that the bill be read a second time that day six months. He contended that the effects of the bill would be to dissociate the governing body of the University from the Church of England, with which it had hitherto been connected. The Chancellor of the Exchequer supported the motion. He thought that if the tests applied at Oxford for the purpose of ascertaining membership of the Church of England were tests not fitted to the circumstances of the times, their continuance would justify and require a vote in favour of the second reading of the bill. He saw no reason for special and exceptional laws for Oxford, which were totally unknown elsewhere. At the same time, he could not undertake to support the bill as it stood on the third reading, as it was not quite consistent to lay down by law that no test should be applicable to Divinity degrees, and as regarded admission to the governing body of the University. He warned those who had the best interests of the Church of England at heart to be careful how they lent themselves to a policy of indiscriminate resistance. Mr Walpole considered that the promoters of the bill had ulterior views, and on that ground he felt bound to oppose it. Sir

G. Grey supported the bill, and on a division the numbers were—

For the second reading,	211
Against,	189
Majority,	22

*THE SENATUS ACADEMICUS of Edinburgh University has revived the degree of Bachelor in Divinity (B.D.) under very liberal conditions. The same body has adopted regulations under which "class-examinations" shall be held in the medical classes during the Session, which shall supersede the degree examination altogether in the case of students who gain 75 per cent. of the marks, and shall reduce it to an oral examination in the case of those who gain 50 per cent. The professors are to be aided by assessors in conducting the examinations.

THE NEW EDUCATION MINUTE.—The following minute, dated March 11, 1864, of the Committee of Council on Education, has been published as a parliamentary paper:—

"Read—The following extract from Article 52 in the Code of Minutes and Regulations, dated the 30th of January 1864:

"The grant is reduced

(c.) By its excess above—

1. The amount of school fees and } in the year
subscriptions; or } defined by
2. The rate of 15s. per scholar, accord- } Article
ing to the average number in attendance, } 17 †

(d.) By the amount of any annual endowment.'

"Resolved—That so much of Article 52 as declares that the grant shall be reduced by the amount of any annual endowment should not apply to small rural schools (Article 138)††, but that in such schools the grant and the endowment together must not exceed the rate of 15s. per scholar, according to the average number of scholars in attendance throughout the year (Article 17)†."

"† 17. The year is reckoned as ending with the last day (inclusive) of the month preceding that fixed for the inspector's annual visit.

"†† 138. Must not contain more than 1,200 square feet of superficial area in the whole of the school-rooms and class-rooms, or they must be certified as not needing, nor likely to be attended by more than 100 scholars."

On the 11th March, Mr Lowe stated, in reply to Sir J. Pakington, that the report of the Committee of Council would be laid on the table early in June, the usual time. Instructions had been given to only half the inspectors to report this year. The reports would be presented without mutilation, if presented at all, but it was optional with the Board to present them or not.

On the 15th March, Lord R. Cecil gave notice that on that day month he should bring forward a resolution condemning the practice of mutilating the reports of inspectors on education before they were presented to the House.

On the 15th March, Sir H. Cairns asked for what reason the annual report of the Commissioners of National Education (Ireland) for the year 1862 had not yet been presented to Parliament; and whether steps would be taken to have that report, and also the report for 1863, laid upon the table before the vote for national education (Ireland) was moved. Sir R. Peel said the annual report of the Commissioners of Education for 1862 had been presented to Parliament. With regard to 1863, the report would be presented on the 1st of June, but not the appendix. He should have no objection to lay on the table any correspondence between himself and the commissioners on the subject of the recent alteration in the rules with reference to convent schools.

On the 18th March, Mr Adderley gave notice that he should, after Easter, move that the minute of the Committee of Council of Education of the 11th of March on endowed schools does not meet the objections made to the minute of 19th May 1863.

THE PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS of Scotland have adopted a petition against the introduction of the Revised Code into that country. The points chiefly insisted on are—(1.) That the Royal Commission did not extend to Scotland; (2.) the absence of provisions to meet the case of accidental absences on the day of examination; (3.) the limitation of the grant to children of parents who support themselves by manual labour; (4.) the exclusion of endowments from being reckoned with local subscriptions; (5.) the hardship of the arrangements with regard to present certificated teachers.

A gentleman residing in Holy Trinity parish district, Paddington, has given the munificent sum of £1000 towards the cost of completing the schools for that district.

CONTRACTS have been entered into for the erection of the Fettes College in Edinburgh, at an expense of £80,000. The fund for the building and endowment has been accumulating since the death of Sir William Fettes in 1836.

THE late Alexander Paton, Esq., of Cowden Park, Alloa, has bequeathed the sum of £5,500 to build and endow a school in Alloa.

ACCORDING to the Report on the Census of Scotland for 1861, there were 6988 male, and 5523 female teachers.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—In the Chamber, on the occasion of the debate on the Imperial Address, in the fortnightly conferences of the Society for the Promotion of Elementary Instruction, and in the press generally, educational questions have undergone of late very ample discussion. The extreme anti-clerical party demand that the instruction provided by Government be gratuitous, laic, *i. e.*, imparted by laymen alone, and compulsory: gratuitous and compulsory, they say, because universal suffrage requires universal instruction, which cannot be realised if you either require school-pence from the poor, or tolerate non-attendance on the part of the indifferent; and laic, because laymen alone, as opposed to ecclesiastics, can be depended on to inspire the youth of France with supreme attachment to their country, and its modern institutions. To all this it is answered that elementary instruction is already gratuitous to the poor; that to debar ecclesiastical persons from teaching would be intolerance, and that to compel universal attendance at school is impossible.

If published statistics be correct, France, which does not make attendance at school compulsory, is in advance, in this very particular, of Prussia and Austria, which do.

	Total population.	Children in non-attendance.
France,	36,000,000	600,000
Austria,	36,000,000	1,160,000
Prussia,	18,000,000	600,000

Switzerland apparently offers an example of successful compulsion; but it is maintained on the other hand, that the effective compulsion in Switzerland has proceeded, not from the law, but from public opinion, involving the highest appreciation, by all classes, of the benefits of elementary instruction, which dictated the law. One penalty proposed for non-attendance by the advocates of compulsion is, that the fathers of absentee children should lose the suffrage, a degradation which would probably tell in country districts, where every man is known to his neighbour. Another savours of despair, being to the effect that, after 1870, the first numbers in the conscription should be assigned in every parish to those youths who could neither read nor write. Another educationalist, looking away from compulsion altogether, would have a premium awarded to the teachers whose schools should be most numerously attended!

The Minister of Public Instruction gave his answer in a circular, addressed to the local authorities on the 24th February. After quoting the law of 16th March 1850, which provides, that primary

instruction be given gratuitously to all the children of families unable to pay for it, and the statistical fact that, in 1861, there were in France 600,000 children not receiving any primary instruction at all, he points out that the remedy is to be found in a more considerate and careful application of the law. It appears that, when a very poor man had a very numerous family, the local authorities used to put, not all his children, but only one or two of them, on the gratuitous list: the minister orders that not any of these children shall be deprived of the benefit intended for them by the law. Again, the local authorities sometimes put a mark on the disorderly conduct of parents, by excluding their children from the gratuitous list: the minister orders that the children shall no longer suffer in this way for their parents' faults. In other cases, indigent children were not put on the gratuitous list, because the local authorities knew beforehand that, through the necessities or indifference of their parents, such children would not attend: the minister orders the names of such children to be put on the list, and points out that their parents may be reached by making the amount of parish-relief afforded them depend in some measure on their children's attendance at school.

The real reason why the extreme anti-clerical party insist on instruction being gratuitous and compulsory is, that there are means towards the suppression of ecclesiastical schools which at present compete with those of Government, underbidding them sometimes, and, independently of that, being preferred by the more devoted Roman Catholics. As soon as the priest saw teachers settled down beside them, laymen whose learning was only inferior to their own, and whose position was fixed by Government, they recognised a rival order, fatal to their own monopoly of local influence, and dangerous to the supreme authority of the Church over the minds of the people. Hence the multiplication of brotherhoods devoted to the instruction of the poor: the policy of the priest was to use their rivals' weapons, to beat the teachers by teaching. So far as girls' schools are concerned, the priests have fairly gained the day, there being twice as many pupils in the schools of the various sisterhoods as in those of Government. The sisters have even triumphed so far that the authorisation of their own superior is accepted in lieu of the Government-certificate of competency required in the case of lay female teachers.

The French Government has at length authorised teachers to bring down their history-lessons to the present day. For a long time 1815 was the limit

as before that again 1789 had been. Another proof both of conscious strength and of a liberal tendency in the Government, may be found in the permission recently given to hold public lectures, provided always that the lecturers eschew the political questions of the day. The lecture-rooms have been crowded hitherto; and in the evening compete with the attractions of the theatre. On the first Monday of March, a gratuitous course of evening lectures was commenced in the Sorbonne. In one quarter of an hour 1200 people had seated themselves in the hall, and 3000 more were crowding the adjacent street vainly hoping for admission. The subject of lecture was, "The various conditions of matter;" but, little matter what the subject be, lectures in the English fashion, even to the tremendous applause, louder and heartier than ever shakes the theatre, are at present the rage in Paris. Itinerant lecturers have already sprung up. One of the most popular at Paris, M. Emile Deschanel, has been on a tour through Belgium and Holland, beginning at Vervier, on Sunday the 6th March, with "*Moliere and Tartuffe*" for his subject. After sketching the lecturer's itinerary, the French chronicler concludes, evidently with admiration and the pleasure of a new sensation,—"*Voilà de l'activité.*"

GERMANY.—In October last, the Prussian Minister of Public Instruction added drawing to the list of branches belonging to *general* education, as distinguished from *special* or *professional*, and it now forms an integral part of the course in all higher Prussian schools.

ITALY.—The Government of Victor Emmanuel has given a grant in aid of a primary school, to be established at Smyrna, in a quarter swarming with poor Neapolitans. The Italian residents are also coming forward with handsome subscriptions.

At Macerata, a town not far distant from the famous Loreto, a Society is seeking to encourage primary instruction by prizes of a novel kind. Every Macerata conscript who can read or write when he joins the army in active service, is to receive a considerable sum, and every Macerata girl who can read and write, is to have an annual chance for a dowry in a lottery.

PORTUGAL.—In both Spain and Portugal, popular education has been making great progress of late years. The following statistics relate to Portugal:—

	Number of Scholars.	Number of Schools.
1854,	1200	55,192
1862,	1788	79,172

In Portugal the teacher is a public functionary; the separation between church and school is complete, and attendance at school is compulsory.

CHINA.—Many who know that China may be called the Prussia of the East in respect of the intimate connection between the public schools and the Government service, are not aware that popular education is entirely neglected by the Government in China. The sole object of the Government is to secure a succession of qualified public servants.

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 15th of each Month. We shall in future devote more space to this department than was possible in the present Number.]

ASSOCIATED BODY OF CHURCH SCHOOLMASTERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.—*Eleventh Annual Report.*

—The Eleventh Annual Report of the Associated Body has just been issued.

North Staffordshire.—The Quarterly Meeting of the above district was held at Stoke on Trent on the 5th March. There was a large attendance, and the following subjects were discussed:—1. School Drill, introduced by M. Helm (Dis. Pres.). 2. The desirability of drawing up a Form of Prayer for the use of the Associated Body, introduced by Mr Stuter, and resulting in the following resolution being submitted for the consideration of the General Committee: "That a Form of Prayer be drawn up for the use of the Associated Body, and that the same be submitted to the Archbishop of Canterbury for

his approval." 3. The best means of raising the Status of the Associated Body, introduced by Mr Snelson, who embodied his remarks in the following resolutions, which were carried *nem. con.*: (a.) That the masters of the great public schools be invited to become members of the Associated Body, and that they be eligible for the presidency; (b.) That it is desirable that the Associated Body become a corporate member of the Social Science Association. 4. Educational Periodicals, introduced by Mr Walker, who shewed the great want that has long been felt of a really good Schoolmasters' Paper. No resolution was come to on this point, as it was suggested that the void would in all probability be filled by the new periodical to be published by Messrs Nelson & Sons.

York.—The Monthly Meeting was held on the 5th inst., when the subject of "Reading Books" was introduced for discussion by Mr Burgoyne, Mickle-gate School. It was not considered by the members

that there was yet a suitable set of Reading Books for schools, although Laurie's and Chambers's series shewed a decided improvement on those which had hitherto been in use.

North Lonsdale.—A meeting of this Society was held at Ulverstone on Saturday the 27th ult., Mr Grocock, master of Lowick Bridge School, in the chair. Mr Beckett, Hon. Sec., read a paper contributed by D. R. Fearon, Esq., H.M.I. of Schools, on "the method of examining Schools for the present half year under the Revised Code."

Tyneside.—The Annual Meeting of the Association was held in the Hexham Subscription Schools on Saturday, January 30. 1864. Mr Melbourne of Broomhaugh read a paper upon the "Fundamental Principles of Arithmetic." Mr Middlemass of Hexham read a paper on "Synchronous Time Tables."

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.—At the February Evening Meeting, Dr Wilson in the chair, Mr Barrow Rule read an able paper on "Scholastic Registration," in which he explained fully the nature of the proposal, replied to objections, and gave an account of the progress of the movement. At the March meeting, Mr M. C. Tyler read a paper on musical "Gymnastics," which was illustrated by the exercises of a class of his pupils.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND.—The Edinburgh Local Association met in the High School on February 27., to hear a lecture from Mr Taylor, but as he was unable to be present from indisposition, the meeting was favoured with a lecture by Mr Pryde, on "Our Present Weights and Measures, and the proposed introduction of the Metric System."

Appointments.

C. U. Bower, Esq., B.A., St John's College;—Second Master, Grammar School, Wallsall.

Rev. F. J. Nellen, M.A., Corpus Christi College;—Assistant Master, Durham Grammar School.

H. Robinson, Esq., B.A., Senior Optime of St John's;—Second and Mathematical Master, Manchester Commercial Schools.

The Rev. E. Bartum, M.A. of Pembroke Coll., Oxford;—Head Master of King Edward VI.'s School, Great Berkhamstead.

Henry Williams, Esq., B.A. of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge;—Mathematical Master of Guildford Royal Grammar School.

Mr G. W. Antias, B.A.;—Second Mastership, Gresham Grammar School, Holt, Norfolk.

The Rev. Walter Waddington Shirley, M.A.;—Regius Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the University of Oxford.

The Rev. Sholto Middleton;—Head Master King Edward VI.'s Grammar School, Bruton, Somerset.

The Rev. E. F. M. Macarthy, late Scholar Emmanuel College, Cambridge;—Mathematical Master, Grammar School, Bedford.

Mr W. Musgrove;—Assistant Arithmetical Master, Grammar School, Bedford.

Rev. Evan Evans, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Pembroke College, Oxford;—Master of that College.

The Month.

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.—The educational event of the month has been Mr Lowe's modified acceptance, on the 8th of March, of Mr Adderley's resolution regarding the minute of the 19th of May last. This result shews how much may be effected by determined and combined effort, especially when supported by an organisation so powerful as that of the Church. The Vice-President has been compelled to yield to the "strong feeling" shewn in the House of Commons against the proposal to reduce the grants "by the amount of any endowment." Though the obnoxious minute has not been cancelled, it has been modified, so as to protect

from its hardships "the poorer classes of schools." Here, then, we have another compromise; another complication, introduced into the already too complicated scheme. It was once suggested that there should be a chair at Oxford for the exposition of *Bradshaw's Guide*. Something of the sort will soon be needed for the Privy Council Education Minutes. We have hinted that the result of Mr Adderley's motion was due in great measure to the efforts of the church, and of the educational societies which nestle under its wing. The Church of England was certainly the party chiefly interested in the question, for we believe that it

possesses nine or ten times the endowments possessed by all other religious denominations. Feeling ran high on the subject, as many schools would have been all but ruined had the minute come into force. The House was deluged with petitions against the minute. Indeed, so alarming were the results anticipated, that it was broadly hinted in more than one quarter that to deal a secret blow at the Church was the main end of the minute. We are very far from crediting the insinuation; for unquestionably some distinction should be drawn between schools dependent wholly on voluntary aid, and schools supported by permanent endowments. The mistake lay in making the provision too sweeping; for as certainly small endowments are often but a poor compensation for the absence of subscriptions. This is the element which the Privy Council must recognise, and this accordingly is the extent of Mr Lowe's concession. Mr Adderley, however, is not yet satisfied, and has given notice of another adverse motion, to come on after Easter.

RATING OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.—An important question has been raised by a recent decision of the magistrates of Devonport. The overseers having resolved to assess the St James's National Schools in that town for poor's rates, the magistrates have issued a warrant for seizing, not the school property, but the goods of the incumbent, in default of payment. The legality of the proceeding is doubtful, for liability to the rate depends upon the "beneficial occupation" of the premises; and we all know that in the case of charity schools the "benefit" is generally to the community rather than to the school. But fortunately this question has never before been raised, as it is the invariable custom in England to exempt such schools from the rate. This is only fair, as the maintenance of the schools is really a poor rate in another form. Why the question has been raised in the present case, we are not sufficiently acquainted with local parties to know. Certain we are that such local knowledge is necessary to a full understanding of the case. Now, however, that the point has been raised, we hope the managers of parochial schools will use every effort to have it equitably and finally settled.

SCOTLAND.—The minute of May 19th has excited less attention in Scotland than other aspects of the question. It was early announced that the heritors' salaries to schoolmasters in that highly favoured land were not to be reckoned as endowments in the sense of Article 52 (d).

The tidal wave of the Revised Code itself is, however, only now beginning to beat against its rugged shores, and is raising a proportionate amount of foam. Meetings of parochial schoolmasters have lately been held in the county centres of Scotland, for the purpose of considering the steps that should be taken in the circumstances; and a petition against the entire measure has been adopted in all of them. The petition, while objecting generally to the extension of the Code to Scotland, on the sound and valid ground that it was the result of a royal commission, whose labours did not include that country, yet insists most strongly on certain points of detail, which, however objectionable in England and Wales, are still more so there. The most grievous of them is the regulation "which limits the grant to the children of parents who support themselves by manual labour," a regulation which the petition well characterises as "inexpedient, and repugnant to the traditional opinions and practice of the Scottish people."

It was felt that the only fair and just means of meeting the case of Scottish education would have been to appoint a special commission to inquire into the state of education in that country, before deciding whether the Revised Code, or a separate measure, was best adapted to its wants. In conformity with a wish expressed by the Scotch members at the close of last session, the Lord Advocate proposed to the Government to issue such a commission. Whatever hopes of such a step existed were finally dissipated on the 28th of February, when his Lordship announced in the House of Commons that the proposal had been rejected, and that there was no hope of the extension of the Revised Code being delayed. Accordingly, the first step towards its introduction has been taken by the re-distribution of the inspectors' districts; and there is now no doubt that all schools inspected after May 1st will be examined and paid under the provisions of the Code.

Meantime the Churches are prosecuting their own schemes with renewed vigour. There is no doubt that the prospect, constantly held out, of the passing of a national measure had diminished the interest in, and the aid given to, denominational schemes. And at the late meeting of the Free Church Commission, the convener (Mr Nixon) urged the necessity of directing all their efforts towards the improvement of their own scheme, and the removal of the evils connected with the Revised Code, adding, as a condition of this, that parties should "dismiss entirely from their minds every measure that would have for its object the introduction of any other scheme." Thus the

question of national education for Scotland is suspended for a season, all the more that the Lord Advocate is well known to be disgusted with the ecclesiastical dissensions, which have been the rock on which all his numerous education bills have made shipwreck.

OXFORD.—The new examination statute, which caused so much excitement and discussion when promulgated some months ago, was finally passed by convocation on the 2d of February, by a majority of *ten*, in a house of 524 members. The effect of the new statute is, to separate the subjects of examination, so as to enable a man to devote himself to one department exclusively, and not only to pass, but to obtain honours in that department alone. This may conduce to higher attainments in classics, in philosophy, &c., in individual cases; but it is doubtful whether it will produce so large a number of broadly educated men.

The proposal to render bare justice to Professor Jowett has been again rejected. The statute for the endowment of the Greek Professorship was submitted to a convocation of 862 members, on March 8., and was disapproved by a majority of 72. Who shall say that the spirit of persecution is extinct in England? We by no means homologate Professor Jowett's peculiar theological views; but we must add our protest, in the name of intelligence and freedom of opinion, against the intolerant bigotry which seeks to starve a man into orthodoxy. This policy is sheer infatuation. Every such lamentable exhibition of intolerance only renders Professor Jowett's influence stronger, and his position more secure. Such a victory is worse than a score of defeats. Already it has provoked the House of Commons to take the first step toward a remedy, by giving a second reading to the Abolition of Tests Bill.

The statute under which the delegates for Local Examinations act expires next year, when we may expect a revival of the discussion upon the "Faith and Religion" clauses, which endangered the whole measure when the statute was last renewed. Let us hope that convocation will now be so well satisfied with the whole working of the scheme, the religious difficulty included, as to feel warranted in establishing the system, if not permanently, at least for a longer term.

EDINBURGH LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—As noticed in an earlier part of the present number, there is every prospect of the speedy extension of the local examination system to Scotland, under the auspices of the University of Edinburgh. The

details of the proposal, in so far as they have been provisionally arranged, are given in the article alluded to. We need only further point out here the advantages which the scheme offers to the different parties interested: to teachers, of having their work tried by a high and competent educational authority; to parents, of having reliable means of judging of the education their sons are receiving; to young men, of having a university certificate as a proof of their being well educated; to employers of young men, of having a guarantee of the intellectual capacity of their assistants, in addition to the moral guarantees they at present possess; to school directors, of being able to compare the efficiency of their schools with that of schools in different parts of the country; and to the University, of improving the general elementary education of the country, and so of gradually elevating the standard of university education itself. The scheme has even a more important bearing on Female Education. There is no recognised standard, except in the case of Government Teachers, to which Governesses can appeal in proof of their qualifications. But the University Certificate would form a Diploma which would prove equally honourable and useful.

UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENT.—Perhaps the most useful feature in the recent reform of the Scottish universities is the machinery with which it supplied them of improving themselves. Another result of it, however, has been to inspire the public mind with greater confidence in the university system, which again has already borne substantial fruit in the establishment of fellowships and new scholarships in connection with more than one of the universities. This has raised the general question of the better endowment of the universities; for it is admitted that the labours of the Commissioners in this direction were attended with very partial and wholly inadequate success. Two schemes with this view—one in aim, but different in scope—are at present agitating the minds of university reformers. The first of these is extremely comprehensive, aiming at nothing less than the complete endowment of all the universities and higher class schools of Scotland, for which it is proposed to raise the sum of £500,000, in subscriptions of £5 and upwards. We should heartily support such a proposal, did we see any, the least, probability of its accomplishment. Judging, however, by past experience, we believe the scheme to be wholly visionary. Its very comprehensiveness would be fatal to its success, and partial success would be little better

than failure. Our sympathies, therefore, run rather with the second proposal, which is wisely limited to the University of Edinburgh by its projectors, the chief of whom is a learned gentleman, to whose liberality that university is already largely indebted. Similar schemes, it is hoped, may be inaugurated in connection with each of the other universities; and thus, by a cumulative process, the movement may be left to acquire the national character which is desiderated under the other proposal. The only source which the second scheme, as well as the first one, looks to for aid, is private liberality; and the specific objects contemplated under it are, (1.) the better endowment of *existing* chairs or assistant professorships; (2.) the foundation of *new* chairs and lectureships; (3.) The endowment of new scholarships in connection with each of the faculties. There can be no doubt of the desirableness of each and all of these objects; and, while the spirit of liberality, and of interest in academical institutions, is abroad, it is highly desirable that it should be taken advantage of in the way most likely to lead to a successful issue.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS' COMMISSION REPORT.—The voluminous Report of the Public Schools' Commission (in four huge volumes) reached us only when we were on the eve of going to press. We must, however, so far disturb our arrangements as to give our readers a brief abstract of the practical "general recommendations" made by the Commissioners. This we shall do categorically, reserving fuller explanations and all criticism till our next number:—

I. The Governing Bodies should be reformed.

II. Statutes and Laws should be revised; and the Governing Body should be empowered to amend the Laws from time to time.

III. The Governing Body should manage property and endowments; appoint (and dismiss) Head Master; regulate admission, treatment of foundation boys, boarding-houses, fees and charges, attendance at divine service, sanitary affairs, holidays, and course of study.

IV. The Governing Body should hold general meetings once at least half-yearly, and special meetings when required.

V. The Head Master should select (and dismiss) Assistant Masters, regulate class arrangements, hours and class-books, maintain discipline and administer punishment.

VI. All the Masters should meet in School Council, at least once a month, to consider matters brought before them by the Head Master, whom they may "advise," but not "bind or control."

VII. The selection of Masters should not be confined to persons educated at the school.

VIII. "The classical languages and literature should continue to hold the principal place in the course of study."

IX.-XII. Every boy should learn Arithmetic and Mathematics, one modern language (French or German), one natural science, and drawing or music; they should be enabled "to acquire a good general knowledge of Geography, and of ancient History, some acquaintance with modern History, and a command of pure Grammatical English."

XIII. Boys should be allowed to "drop some portion of their classical work (for example, Latin verse and Greek composition), in order to devote more time to mathematics, modern languages, or natural science;" and *v. v.*

XIV. There should be a school Time-table.

XV. There should be an effective system of reward and punishment.

XVI., XVII. Promotion from form to form should depend upon progress in *all* the subjects of study, not in classics and divinity alone.

XVIII.-XXII. Refer to classification for different studies, to prizes, and to school-lists.

XXIII. "Every boy should be required, before admission to the school, to pass an entrance examination, and to shew himself well grounded for his age in classics and arithmetic, and in the elements of either French or German." [Mr Vaughan dissents from this recommendation, both on account of the anomalous relation in which it places the subjects included in it, and because of the effect it will have on elementary schools.]

XXIV. There should be an entrance examination to each form.

XXV. "No boy should be suffered to remain in the school who fails to make reasonable progress in it."

XXVI., XXVII. Charges and stipends should be revised.

XXVIII. All charges for instruction should form a general fund, out of which the Governing Body should pay the Masters. "Leaving fees should be abolished."

XXIX. The working of the monitorial system should be watched. The power of punishment, when entrusted to boys, should be carefully guarded.

XXX. The system of flogging should likewise be watched.

XXXI. The holiday times at the different public schools should coincide.

XXXII. The Head Master should make an Annual Report to the Governing Body on the state of the schools. This report should be printed, and should include tabular returns for the year.

THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN FACT.*

ABOUT a year ago there appeared in the pages of this journal an article on *Public Schools in Fiction*, in which it was attempted, by means of certain popular novels of school life, written by the professed friends of these schools, to obtain some insight into their inner life, its morals, manners, and customs. It was hinted at the close of that article that the publication of the Report of the Royal Commissioners would probably afford an opportunity for reviewing the condition of these great institutions as they really are. That opportunity has now occurred, and we do not shrink from redeeming our pledge.

While the Report, from its very nature, is necessarily deficient in many of the features which hold the most prominent place in the pages of the fictions, it necessarily also includes a much wider range of topics, and deals primarily with those substantial and vital points which in works of fiction, except by incidental allusions, can have no place at all. The Commissioners say that they have not thought it right to extend their inquiries "to any points not properly educational." But it was precisely on points "properly educational" that we desiderated information; and on these points their report affords us all, or nearly all, the information that we could require.

These four bulky blue-books contain, without exception, the most valuable body of educational

information that has ever been given to the world. The first volume comprises the formal report of the Commissioners, in two parts: first, a general report on constitution, government, curriculum, organization, and discipline, applicable to all the schools; second, detailed reports, one on each of the nine schools which fell within the scope of their inquiry. The second volume consists of a series of very valuable appendices,—communications from distinguished statesmen, men of learning and science, on educational topics, and accounts of school systems, ancient and modern, in this and other countries. The third and fourth volumes comprise the evidence, written and oral, obtained in answer to the inquiries of the Commissioners. We have thus laid before us a complete history of these schools, and a full and particular account of their present educational condition, supplemented by a standing body of testimony, not only of the highest educational importance, but of the greatest social value.

While the inquiry was, as has been indicated, most thorough in its method, the report resulting from it is also eminently fair, candid, impartial, and judicious in its spirit and tone. At the same time, the report fully and in every particular justifies the demand for inquiry. Yet there is hardly a word in the report, from first to last, of which either the friends or the opponents of these schools can fairly complain. On one or two points of discipline, to be afterwards noted, a more decided opinion might have been desired. But with this slight exception, they have concealed no blot, covered no abuse, exaggerated nothing, and no-

* Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Revenues and Management of certain Colleges and Schools, and the Studies pursued and Instruction given therein; with an Appendix and Evidence. 4 vols. fol.

thing extenuated. On the other hand, they have given way to no reckless demand for reform, and they have not stinted their praise of what they found to be praiseworthy. Indeed, so complete has been their exposure of the public schools, yet so cautious and deliberate their conclusions,—so liberal their spirit, yet so conservative their liberalism,—that it is not difficult to predict for this great educational battle a doubtful issue, in which both sides will claim the victory.

The Commissioners expressly and prominently “acknowledge the uniform courtesy with which our inquiries have been met in every quarter to which they have been directed, and the general readiness which has been shewn to afford us full and minute information.” It is much to be regretted that, in one very important particular, their efforts to obtain information were wholly frustrated. They proposed to test the average results of the teaching in public schools, by an actual, but simple, examination of a certain proportion of their pupils. The proposal seems to have been very fair and legitimate; yet it was all but unanimously declined by the head masters, whom it threw into a state of most pitiable consternation. The reasons urged against the proposal are not such as to remove the unfavourable impression which the fact of their declinature produces; and when we see the conclusions to which the Commissioners are driven regarding the actual condition of the public schools, we are forced to conclude that the head masters declined the test, because they dreaded the exposure which it could not fail to make of their disgraceful deficiencies.

The results of public school instruction, as shewn by the average proficiency of public school men in the Universities, are fully described in the extract from the report printed in another part of our present number. We need not therefore enlarge upon these results here. The Commissioners have themselves summarized these results when they assert that the public schools send to the Universities “the ablest scholars,” and also “the idlest and most ignorant men.” The results as tested by the army examinations are a little more favourable to the public schools, in connection with direct commissions and Sandhurst. But when we come to the Woolwich examination, which requires considerable mathematical attainments, the failure of the public schools again become lamentably conspicuous. So severely did the Woolwich test bear upon public school men that, in 1862, it was simplified so as to make it “easier for candidates who have not received special training,” that is, who have not been specially “crammed” for it.

But in the three years preceding this change, there were 84 public school men amongst the candidates, and of these 35 passed and 49 failed. All the 35 had in the mean time passed through the hands of professional coaches, and so had their deficiencies for the nonce supplied. Only two out of the 84 went direct from the schools, and *both of these failed*.

After this, we need not be surprised at the conclusion at which the Commissioners have arrived, “that of the time spent at school by the generality of boys, much is absolutely thrown away as regards intellectual progress, either from ineffective teaching, from the continued teaching of subjects in which they cannot advance, or from idleness, or from a combination of these causes.” Nor are we inclined to lower this intellectual estimate of the public schools into a place of secondary importance. Indeed, it is impossible to attach too much importance to the subject of their educational value. As regards the object of inquiry, it is really the kernel of the whole matter. In the consciousness of their shameful deficiencies, it has been the vain boast of the friends of public schools that it was not for what or how they were taught that boys were sent there. Yet it cannot for a moment be denied that the primary object of sending boys to school is, and always must be, to have their minds educated and instructed. Neither, in a moral point of view, can we afford to forget or neglect the very direct influence which intellectual training has upon the judgment, the taste, and the development of character. The time has long gone by when any amount of high spirit, or any extent of self-possession and self-reliance, can compensate, in the world's business, for the want of intellectual capacity and attainments. There can be no true manliness without the combination and the mutual influence of these two principles. The same view seems to be glanced at by the Commissioners in more than one passage of their report, which abounds throughout in the most valuable and judicious remarks on the theory of education, in its broadest sense. One of these passages we are tempted to quote. They have been speaking of the dangers of exacting too much from young minds, and of the difficulty of attracting boys from sport to work; and they go on to say:—

“But these are difficulties which it is the business of the schoolmaster to contend with, and which careful and skilful teaching may to some extent overcome. If a youth, after four or five years spent at school, quits it at 19, unable to construe an easy bit of Latin or Greek without the help of a dictionary, or to write Latin grammatically, almost ignorant of geography and of the history of his own

country, unacquainted with any modern language but his own, and hardly competent to write English correctly, to do a simple sum, or stumble through an easy proposition of Euclid, a total stranger to the laws which govern the physical world, and to its structure, with an eye and hand unpractised in drawing, and without knowing a note of music, with an uncultivated mind and no taste for reading or observation, his intellectual education must certainly be accounted a failure, though there may be no fault to find with his principles, character, or manners. We by no means intend to represent this as a type of the ordinary product of English public-school education; but speaking both from the evidence we have received and from opportunities of observation open to all, we must say that it is a type much more common than it ought to be, making ample allowance for the difficulties before referred to, and that the proportion of failures is therefore unduly large."

The distinction here incidentally drawn between mental and moral training leads us to remark that, in the latter point, full justice is done by the Commissioners to the public schools. "It is not easy," say they, "to estimate the degree in which the English people are indebted to these schools for the qualities on which they pique themselves most—for their capacity to govern others and control themselves, their aptitude for combining freedom with order, their public spirit, their vigour and manliness of character, their strong but not slavish respect for public opinion, their love of healthy sports and exercise." "On the general results," say they in another place, "of public school education as an instrument for the training of character, we can speak with much confidence." And they go on to quote more specifically from the evidence they have received on this point, to the following effect:—

"The great schools—which, it must be observed, train for the most part the masters who are placed at the head of the smaller schools, and thus exercise not only a direct but a wide indirect influence over education—may certainly claim, as Mr Hedley says, a large share of the credit due for the improved moral tone of the Universities, as to which we have strong concurrent testimony:—'I think there has been a great improvement in the moral training and character of the young men who have come to the University of late years. The schools deserve much of the credit for it, though there is a great difference in schools in this respect; much of the change is due, no doubt, to the influence of public opinion.'

"The Master of Balliol says:—'I have the very great satisfaction of expressing my conviction, that a very marked improvement has taken place in the moral training and character of the young men

who have come to the University, within the period of my remembrance. In this respect I make no distinction between public schools and other modes of education: but my opportunities of observation have been more extensive in reference to pupils of public schools.'

"Mr Rawlinson of Exeter, says:—'I think that there has been a considerable improvement in the moral training and character of our young men from public, and even from private, schools within the period over which my experience extends. The change dates from the time when Arnold's pupils began to come up to Oxford, which was just about the time when I myself entered the University. It gradually progressed for some fifteen or twenty years, as school after school passed into fresh hands. I doubt, however, if there has been any improvement recently; and I think great watchfulness is needed at all the public and other large schools to prevent a deterioration in this important respect.'

"Mr Mayor of St John's College, Cambridge, writes:—'In many respects there has certainly been an improvement of late years, especially in men coming up from the larger schools. There is less of roughness and more manliness. The masters see more of the boys than they used, and exert a more powerful influence over them. I do not think that there has been the same change in the case of boys coming from home or from the smaller schools.'

"There is, we rejoice to find, a general agreement on this point, even among witnesses who differ widely in their estimate of the intellectual education which these schools afford."

Much of the evidence also which they have received as to the religious teaching is "very satisfactory." "The boys appear, generally speaking, to be very carefully prepared for confirmation, and to receive this rite with becoming seriousness." And as to the holy communion, "we are glad to learn . . . that the proportion who attend, among those who have been confirmed, is everywhere considerable."

In regard to Discipline, the conclusions of the Commissioners are more favourable than some portions of the evidence led us to expect. While they think that the delegation of authority, including the power of punishment, to the senior boys, under the monitorial system, is exposed to risks and liable to abuse, they yet express their belief "that cases of abuse have been exceptional, and that by proper precautions they may be prevented from interfering seriously with the beneficial working of the system." They think that the principle "has borne excellent fruits, and done most valuable service to education." Of the beneficial working of the kindred system of flogging they also seem to be perfectly satisfied. The re-

sult of their investigations on this point is, that fagging "is not degrading to the juniors, is not enforced tyrannically, and makes no exorbitant demands upon their time, and that it has no injurious effect upon the character of the seniors." They recommend, however, that it should be carefully "watched," and that fags should not be required to perform menial services, such as lighting fires and gas, and that it should not be allowed to encroach either upon the lesson time or upon the play time of the juniors. The only school in connection with which the evidence led them nearly to an opposite conclusion was Westminster, which enjoys the "bad pre-eminence" of being the worst-fagged school in England. Here they find that, though the duties of the fags have recently been lightened, "some farther alterations are urgently required." The evidence of Mr Meyrick regarding his son, and of his son himself, clearly proves the cruel and vexatious character of the treatment to which the fags are subjected. In spite of the counter testimony urged with not a little strong feeling by the head master, the Commissioners "feel bound to say that, in our judgment, there is reason to conclude from this evidence, that abuses of power may and sometimes do take place, and that undeserved or excessive punishments may be inflicted without the knowledge of the masters, and without their interference, and that they are too often unchecked by public opinion in the school." After such a judgment as this, it seems to indicate an unaccountable, almost a blind, adhesion to traditional usage, for the Commissioners to recommend no more than that the system "should continue to be carefully watched." A strange *continuance* certainly, if hitherto it has been possible for "excessive punishments to be inflicted without the knowledge of the masters!"

Such, then, being the condition of the public schools, intellectual and moral, as revealed by the Commissioners' Report, it becomes important to advert to the measures of reform which they suggest. And here let us say generally, that though some of their recommendations are lacking in practical utility or adaptiveness, they are, upon the whole, very wise and prudent. There has been an honest desire to adapt the schools to the wants of the age, yet there has been no yielding to the demands of senseless utilitarianism. The recommendations are based on the soundest conceptions of what the education of gentlemen should be, and they are adapted to the particular evils to be met, with much practical sagacity. They find that classical scholarship is low, that the course of instruction is narrow, that the schools are "too indulgent to

idleness, or struggle ineffectually with it;" and with each of these glaring faults they have set themselves fearlessly to grapple.

Beginning at the foundation, they find serious fault with the neglect of parents in allowing their sons to spend in idleness the years during which they should be preparing for the public schools. To secure better preparatory training, they recommend the institution of an entrance examination at the threshold of each school. Every boy should be required to shew himself "well-grounded for his age in classics and arithmetic, and in the elements of either French or German." In spite of Mr Vaughan's protest, we consider this a most valuable and much needed suggestion. If boys have been allowed to grow up in ignorance to their tenth or eleventh year, it is too much to expect them suddenly to take to work heartily, and to throw off at once their habits of indolence. We should have been better pleased had the Commissioners included English reading, spelling, and grammar in the preliminary examination, as these are subjects in which considerable progress should be made before the strictly classical course commences; and for this we should readily sacrifice the one modern language at this stage. It is surely reasonable that boys should know something of their own language before studying those that are either foreign or dead. Let us, however, get the principle of an entrance examination established, and these details will be, without much difficulty, adjusted.

The due preparation of the boy on entering the school being thus ascertained, we have next a recommendation that promotion from form to form should not depend upon seniority merely, but also upon real progress ascertained by regular examinations. It is further suggested that this promotion should not depend upon progress in classics merely, but in all subjects which a boy is studying. Such a regulation as this would obviously work as a powerful stimulus to the study of the secondary branches of instruction, as history, mathematics, modern languages, and science; and would give these subjects their proper place and weight in the school system. In order to give due force to these regulations, it is next recommended that "no boy should be suffered to remain in the school who fails to make reasonable progress in it;" that is to say, when a boy fails to pass the examination which should admit him to a higher form, and attains the maximum age for continuing in a lower form, he is virtually eliminated from the school. He must leave the third form, say, because he is too old to remain in it; but he cannot get into the fourth form, be-

cause he is not fit to enter it: he must therefore leave the school. Were these suggestions adopted and fairly acted upon, there can be no doubt that the "idleness," with the charge of which the public schools stand branded, would very soon disappear.

With regard to the curriculum, we are glad to find the Commissioners expressing a strong and undivided opinion, "that the classical languages and literature should continue to hold the principal place in the course of study." But not the sole place; not even the absorbing place which they have hitherto held. It is recommended that arithmetic and mathematics, one modern language (French or German), one branch of natural science, and either drawing or music, should be added in the case of every boy passing through the school; and that the course should also include history (ancient and modern), geography, and English composition. The pre-eminence of classics, however, is preserved by the suggestion that they, with history and divinity, should have devoted to them the same amount of time in the week, and the same value in the examinations, as all the non-classical subjects put together. The proposal to institute a regular "modern side" has been rejected; but it has been recommended that,

after arriving at a certain stage in the school, boys whose parents wish them to devote more time to practical subjects, should be allowed "to drop some portion of their classical work (for example, Latin verse and Greek composition)." This is wise advice, wise both in its liberality and in its conservatism; and we trust that the governing bodies will equally shew their wisdom by adopting it forthwith.

Many of the other recommendations have a more or less direct bearing on the daily work of the schools, such as that the Head Master should have the uncontrolled power of selecting and dismissing assistant masters, and of appointing and changing the books; that the selection of masters should not be limited to persons educated at the school; that the masters should meet in "school council" at least once a-month, &c.; but on the consideration of these, on the present occasion, our space will not allow us to enter. We shall, doubtless, have many opportunities of discussing them before this exhaustive, but inexhaustible, report is consigned to the shelves. Such a great work as this cannot be dismissed in a day, and we shall take occasion, from time to time, to lay its most valuable portions before our readers.



NATIONAL EDUCATION IN INDIA.*

THE proportion of persons able to read varies in different parts of India from about one in three hundred to ten per cent. Official inquiry in Mysore gave $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. as the proportion of readers. H. Woodrow, Esq., Inspector of Schools, estimates that, including every variety of schools, Government, Missionary, and Indigenous, in "the richest and most populous portion of the province of Bengal," there are "about three persons in every hundred under education." The expenditure by Government in Bengal on account of education does not reach one halfpenny per head per annum. In 1861 the Government and Aided Schools contained 268,611 pupils, only one in five hundred of the population. The Mission Schools, partly included in the Aided Schools, in 1862 numbered 76,670 pupils. The proportion of the people under Christian instruction amounts

to only one in 1760. Of the indigenous Schools no statistics can be given; but from the superstitious and obscene books often read in them, they are in many cases sources of evil rather than good. The Government, Aided, and Mission Schools contain LESS THAN ONE IN FOUR HUNDRED of the population of British India. The proportion under instruction in England is one in $7\frac{1}{2}$.

The people of India should be educated for the following reasons:—

1. *To protect them from oppression.* The brutish ignorance of the ryots counteracts the best efforts of the higher authorities to shield them from injustice. They are subjected to illegal exactions from zemindars, petty Government officers, and the police. The last have been "modelled and remodelled," but with little improvement. Sir Frederick Halliday, when Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, justly observed in his "Minute on Police and Criminal Justice in Bengal:—"

"While the mass of the people remain in their present state of ignorance and debasement, all laws and

* From *National Education in India*. By John Murdoch, Indian Agent of the Christian Vernacular Education Society for India. Madras: Printed at the United Scottish Press, by Graves, Cookson, and Co.

all systems must be comparatively useless and vain. Above all things that can be done by us for this people is their gradual intellectual and moral advancement through the slow but certain means of a widely spreading popular system of vernacular education."

All are agreed that the *primary* duty of Government is to afford protection. This seems impossible in India, unless the people are, in some measure educated.

2. *To prevent absurd alarms endangering the peace of the country.* H. Carre Tucker, Esq., C.B., in his letter to Lord Stanley, gives the following illustrations of the manner in which the people are a prey to the most foolish rumours—"A report that Government intended to boil them down for their fat, cleared Simlah of hill-men! A clever rogue in Goruckpoor is said to have made his fortune by preceding Lord Hastings' camp as purveyor of fat little children for the Governor-General's breakfast!" In 1862, miscreants in Oudh levied contributions in villages, pretending that they had been ordered by Government to set them on fire. Had the sepoys received a sound education, the mutiny would not have occurred.

3. *To promote sanitary reform.* India is generally supposed to be the birth-place of that fell disease cholera, which has more than once carried devastation round the globe. Rich and poor are equally ignorant of the laws of health. Open drains, reeking with filth, often surround the mansions of native millionaires. The annual mortality from preventible causes is frightful.

4. *To "develop the resources" of the country, and improve the social condition of the people.* As the brutes are governed by instinct, so the masses of India blindly follow custom. In most cases, it is a sufficient reason for the rejection of any proposal, however much adapted to benefit them, that their ancestors never did such a thing. Education would do much to call forth the enormous latent wealth of India.

5. *To elevate the people intellectually, morally, and religiously.* Other considerations affect only this life; the reasons now urged are lasting as eternity.

As to the need of Education in India, there can, unhappily, be no dispute. A difference of opinion, however, exists with regard to the parties responsible for the education of the people. Some of those who hold that the provision of religious instruction for adults, under ordinary circumstances, does not fall within the province of Government, but is the exclusive duty of the Church, would apply the same principle to Education. But the

great majority are of opinion that if neither the parents nor the Church establish schools, the State ought to assist. In some cases persons who were zealous Non-conformists in England, when they have seen the appalling ignorance of the masses of India, the utter impossibility of their instruction by voluntary Christian effort, have shrunk from the conclusion that the most enlightened Government in the world ought to make no direct attempt for their intellectual and moral improvement. Still, whoever may be responsible, Government is actually taking a prominent part, and *all* ought to see that its measures do the least harm and the greatest amount of good.

In Government Schools at present the rule *professedly* observed is "perfect neutrality" with regard to religion. Strong doubts are entertained by many who have given much consideration to the subject, whether the evils of such a system do not more than counterbalance its advantages.

Guizot declares that there is no morality without religion. Dr Mouat, formerly secretary of the Bengal Council of Education, and now Inspector of Prisons in Bengal, makes the following admission in an article on Prison Statistics:—"I myself doubt entirely the efficacy as a moral instrument of any system of instruction from which the teaching of religion is, and for obvious reasons, must in the existing state of India, be excluded." Sir William Denison, in his lecture on "Systems of Education," expresses the following opinion:—

"The conclusion, then, which I am entitled to draw from the experience of other countries, so far as this has reference to the objects which we should strive to attain by the adoption of any particular system of education is, that this system should embrace all those faculties of man's nature which can be developed by proper training; that the physical, intellectual, and moral qualities should all receive their proper cultivation, and that, as it is impossible to inculcate abstract moral principles, or to build these upon any other than a religious foundation, the love of God being the only basis for such a superstructure, it is necessary that attention should be paid to the religious training of the children in the day or primary schools."

In England, no grant is made to a school in which religious instruction is not imparted.

The *Madras Observer* thus represents the view taken by many earnest men:—

"To cultivate the intellectual powers, whilst the spiritual element is excluded, will never prove a real blessing to any people. Knowledge is power, we freely admit; but such power, uncontrolled and unsanctified by true and pure religion, is like gigantic strength in the possession of a maniac. A crisis will sooner or later

arrive, in which the savans and philosophers of highly educated young India will display the true character of their civilisation to the confusion and dismay of their instructors."—September 3. 1863.

"For they have sown the wind, and they shall reap the whirlwind."

Many, however, will look with a more favourable eye upon the Government system. The following moderate and discriminating remarks are made in the *Madras Journal of Education*, edited by a gentleman occupying an important position in the Government Education Department:—

"We are by no means prepared to say that morality not based on the Christian religion is of the same purity and solidity as that which is. Where there is no authoritative revelation, no Divine promises, encouragements and warnings to fall back on, it is difficult to see on what basis a man's morality is to be founded, except conventionality and self-interest; so that it will not be founded at all, for these are but frail props, which, in time of temptation, fall away. Imperfect moral culture is, however, preferable to none; and, what would not be tolerable in a Christian community, may be best for us."

The following is probably the real state of the case:—

The English colleges and schools are unquestionably raising up a superior class of public servants. The higher tone which they have diffused, has contributed largely to the diminution of bribery and oppression among the native officers of Government. A few of their *alumni*, like the prime ministers of the Maharajahs of Jyepore and Travancore, are making noble efforts to diffuse the blessings of civilisation.

But the effect in a *moral* point of view is not the only one to be taken into consideration. The *religious* influence of the Government system of education is equally, if not more, important. While "neutrality" is claimed as the watchword, practically it wages war with the dominant superstition. The students of Government colleges see that Hinduism is a mere device of the Brahmans. Nothing positive being presented, they too often draw the conclusion—*All religions are human inventions*, and are in a less hopeful state than ordinary Hindus, who admit that a revelation has been given to man.

The religious effects, however, vary very much with the character of the teachers. Where they hold infidel views, or are even indifferent to the religion they profess, the consequences are most injurious. But if the teachers are consistent Christians, a respectful regard for Christianity is produced in some cases.

Any spirit of opposition between Government and Mission Schools is very much to be depre-

cated. The effect is to prejudice the pupils of the former against the Gospel. On the other hand, the co-operation of the Rev. Dr Duff and E. B. Cowell, Esq., in the Calcutta Bethune Society, and similar measures at Madras, have had a beneficial influence.

It must, however, be added that the course recently taken by the Calcutta University will have a very injurious effect upon the Government system of education throughout the Bengal Presidency. Until the present time the attention of students has been concentrated upon English and the vernaculars, the Hindu giving up Sanscrit, and the Muhammadan, Arabic and Persian. When the compiler passed through Benares a few months ago, he was informed that even the pundits, discerning the signs of the times, were anxious that their sons should learn English rather than the Vedas or the Dharma Shastra of Menu. The reports of Mr H. S. Reid shew how much the study of Arabic has declined. The Calcutta Senate, in recognising only Sanscrit or Arabic, instead of the vernacular languages after the matriculation examination, hinder the acquirement of a complete knowledge of English, by distracting the energies of the students, and stimulate the flagging zeal of the Hindu and Moslem. The Sanscrit student, instead of gaining fresh western ideas, will be taught, to use the words of Macaulay, "medical doctrines which would disgrace an English farrier,—Astronomy which would move laughter in girls at an English boarding-school,—History, abounding with kings thirty feet high, and reigns thirty thousand years long,—and Geography made up of seas of treacle and seas of butter." The bigotry of the Muhammadan, already sufficiently strong, will be nourished by the study of the most fanatical literature on the face of the earth. The encouragement given to the study of Arabic is especially to be deprecated. The *Friend of India* states that so good an authority as Dr Sprenger declares it to be a waste of time to learn Arabic so far as literature is concerned. The Calcutta Senate are more zealous than the "faithful" themselves, for they are generally content with Persian. The reply will be made that the study of Arabic is encouraged *solely as a language*. But the effects *as a whole* must be taken into consideration. The Calcutta Madrassa, or Muhammadan College, though maintained by Government for no such object, produced "*extensive political evil*," and was "in fact a nursery of disaffection." The resolution of the Calcutta Senate will cause thanksgivings to be offered up in the mosques of Cawnpore, Lucknow, and Delhi; but it may be questioned whether the cause of civili-

sation and religion would not be promoted if the Calcutta University, pursuing the cause proposed, *ceased to exist*. The system previously followed by the colleges was much wiser. A better knowledge of English is much more valuable than a pretentious smattering of the so-called classical languages. Sanscrit and Persian, not Arabic, might be required in candidates for *honours*, but their general study is greatly to be deprecated.

So far as ordinary vernacular schools are concerned, the benefit of the present Government system does not appear to admit of a doubt in any respect. The books studied in native schools are, in many cases, of the most objectionable character. In some of them the life of Krishna is the principal text-book. Its moral influence may best be illustrated by supposing that in ancient times the life of Venus had been prescribed for the study of Greek youth. As a general rule, Government school-books are unobjectionable *as far as they go*. Much positive evil is, therefore, shut out, and much positive good inculcated. The education is not carried far enough to excite infidelity, while the claims of Christianity can be presented with more advantage to a somewhat intelligent people, able to read the Scriptures and tracts which may be given to them. It is true that the ability to read is not an unmixed good, for at present superstitious and obscene books are far more common and far more likely to be read than scriptures or tracts. Still, the supply of wholesome literature will increase, and even the partial enlightenment of the people will have a good effect in this direction.

The conclusion to which most will arrive is, that although a Christian education is immeasurably superior, the present Government system, at least so far as vernacular schools are concerned, is effecting a great amount of good. Where the former cannot be given, they will be thankful for the latter.

In 1850 the late Mr Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, commenced a scheme for the improvement of education in eight out of thirty-one districts under his jurisdiction. Mr H. S. Reid, Visitor-General, could not ascertain the existence of more than 2014 schools with 17,169 pupils, among a population of nearly six millions. In three years the schools increased to 3469 with 36,884 pupils. Mr Thomason then proposed the extension of the plan throughout the North-West Provinces :—

In all these parts there is a population no less teeming, and a people as capable of learning. The same

want prevails and the same moral obligation rests upon the Government to exert itself for the purpose of dispelling the present ignorance. The means are shewn by which a great effect can be produced, the cost at which they can be brought into operation is calculated, the agency is available. It needs but the sanction of the highest authority to call into exercise, throughout the length and breadth of the land, the same spirit of inquiry and the same mental activity, which is now beginning to characterise the inhabitants of the few districts in which a commencement has been made.

LORD DALHOUSIE'S MINUTE.—In most honourable and touching language did the Governor-General respond to this appeal :—

"The sanction which the Lieutenant-Governor in these words solicited for an increase of the means which experience has shewn to be capable of producing such rich and early fruit, I now most gladly and gratefully propose, and while I cannot refrain from recording anew, in this place, my deep regret that the ear which would have heard this welcome sanction given with so much joy, is now dull in death, I desire at the same time to add the expression of my feeling, that even though Mr Thomason had left no other memorial of his public life behind him, this system of general Vernacular Education, which is all his own, would have sufficed to build up for him a noble and abiding monument of his earthly career.

"I beg leave to recommend, in the strongest terms, to the Honourable Court of Directors that full sanction should be given to the extension of the scheme of Vernacular Education to all the districts within the jurisdiction of the North-Western Provinces, with every adjunct which may be necessary for its complete efficiency."

But this great statesman did not rest satisfied even with this magnificent scheme, embracing a population nearly as large as the British Islands :—

"I feel that I should very imperfectly discharge the obligations that rest on me as the head of the Government of India, if with such a record before me as that which has been this day submitted to the Council, I were to stop short at the recommendations already proposed.

"These will provide for the wants of the North-Western Provinces; but other vast Governments remain, with 'a population' still more 'teeming.' There, too, the 'same wants prevail, and the same moral obligation rests upon the Government to exert itself for the purpose of dispelling the present ignorance.'

"Those wants ought to be provided for: those obligations ought to be met."

The concluding words of this noble minute are now doubly applicable :—

"Financial considerations no longer shackle the progress of the Government.

"Wherefore it is, more than ever before, its duty in every such case as this, to act vigorously, cordially, and promptly."

May the Author of the Educational Despatch, the survivor of the three Oxford students, the friend of Bentinck, every officer of Government, every one who has himself tasted the blessings of

knowledge, endeavour by God's grace to take full advantage of the unexampled opportunity now presented for the enlightenment of one-sixth of the human race, sunk in ignorance and superstition. And let there be no delay, for the arrows of death fly thick and fast, every hour summoning one thousand immortal beings to give in their final account.

HOMERIC TRANSLATIONS.*

SOME months ago Mr Norgate published a blank verse translation of the *Odyssey*, with which we were not entirely satisfied. The task was too large: the effort at sustained excellence to some extent failed: the original was here and there maltreated in the process of transfusion. We are all the more anxious to report the agreeable surprise with which we have perused the little brochure which has just issued from his pen; a translation in the same measure which he before adopted, but which he will forgive us for saying, he now handles more successfully. No one, of course, reads the *Batracho-myo-machia* with a view to add to his knowledge of the veritable Homer. It is, of course, a later "parody," extremely rich in its travesties of the "councils of the gods," "the armies of heroes," the high-sounding parleys of chiefs on either side. It is the Tom Thumb, or Bombastes of its day; and, if our burlesque writers have not yet appreciated it, we counsel them to buy the cheapest text of the original, and Norgate's translation, so as to get it in hand in good time for Easter. Joking apart, whether it is, as generally supposed, the work of Pigres, brother of Queen Artemisia of Salaminian celebrity, or of some later minor poet, the "Battle of the Frogs and Mice" is worthy of perusal and study for its ingenious conceits and its happy imitation of the grand style. But it is nevertheless, we suspect, little read in the original, and therefore we give Mr Norgate the more credit for his very happy and readable version, which, we can certify, has given amusement to boys and girls we wot, as well as to "children of a larger growth."

The text of the original is probably very corrupt.

* *Batracho-myo-machia*; or, *The Battle of the Frogs and Mice*. An Homeric Tale, reproduced in Dramatic Blank Verse by T. & N. NORGATE. Williams & Norgate 1863.

So we should judge from comparison of the version before us, evidently from some other text, with Baumeister's Leipsic edition, which alone we have at hand. We can see, however, that in the main our translator is commendably close in his version, without failing in aught of the mock heroic spirit of the original. Much effect is added by what might seem in the abstract a questionable process, namely, the appending to each Greek proper name its nearest English equivalent. We propose to give one or two specimens of this version. Every one knows the origin of this mighty strife: how Prince Puff-cheek of Frogland spied a thirsty mouse-potentate by the lake side, and so addressed him, as to evoke this spirited reply (28-42):—

"Why, friend, dost ask about my race, well-known
To all, both gods and men and fowls of heaven?
By name Psicharpax Filcherumb called am I,
And am the son of mighty hearted sire
Trôxartês Chaw-bread; Leichomyiâ
Lick-meal my mother; she then was the daughter
Of great king Pternotrôtês Nibble-ham.
In but she gave me birth and rear'd me up
On dainty eatables, on figs and nuts
And dishes of all sorts. But how thy friend
Should'at thou make me, of nature nowise like?
In waters is thy livelihood; but I,
My usage is to eat whatever food
Is in men's houses, fine thrice-kneaded bread
From goodly-rounded basket 'scapes me not;
Neither doth full-dressed flat-cake, amply cover'd
With sesamé; nor does a slice of ham;
Nor white-sauced livers; nor new-curdled cheese
Fresh from sweet milk: nor nice-good honey-cake
Which e'en the blest ones long for; neither aught
That ever cooks, ordering their kitchen-pots
With spices manifold, prepare for banquets
Of language-gifted men."

In an evil hour this boastful talker trusts himself to an unwonted element, and the back of the wily

frog-chief ("sic et Europe niveum doloso," &c.) Puffcheek does the honours of the water well enough, until poor mouse's fears and troubles come to a climax at the appearance of a water-snake. This sight is not a pleasant one for the frog. He forgets his friend, sends him pitch-pole over his head and ducks into the lake. Filch-crumb meanwhile—

"Soon as he was discharged, fell on his back
Amid the waters, and forepaws together
Tight up he drew, and perishing squeak'd sharp.
Down under water oft he plunged, and oft
By dint of kicking up he rose again:
But to 'scape death was not within his power."
(87-90).

But he perished not unseen. A mouse of eminence, Lord Lickplate, witnessed the treachery and the disaster. The result is a call of the mouse nation to arms. They equip themselves "in motley harness" (a neat rendering of *ἰν ἔντασι δαιδαλίοις*, 119), and send "Pipkin-haunter" as a herald of dire war to the territory of the frogs. We commend the reader to the minute study of the armour of proof adopted by the mice (ver. 123-130), as also of that of the frogs (160-5). In due course we are introduced to the heights of Olympus, and while the two hosts make them ready for battle, we learn the somewhat selfish reasons of Athenè's adoption of the "non-intervention principle." The mice have nibbled a shawl for her. The frogs have spoilt her night's rest with their croaking. Then comes war to the knife:—

"First with lance
High-croak Hypsiboas now stabb'd Leichénor
Bold Lick-dish, standing mid the foremost fighters,
Piercing him in the paunch to his liver's midst;
And headlong down he tumbled, and bedusted
His furry coat so soft." (Ver. 201-205.)

(Note the rendering here of *καὶ δ' ἔπεισεν πρηνῆς, ἀπαλάς δ' ἰκονίσσεν ἰθείρας*.) Like other fights, this meleè is kept up for some time with varying success. One happy *hil* we must chronicle, where Pélobatès

"Tread-mud espied the foe, and on him flung
A pawful of thick mud, and therewith 'nointed
His forehead, and nigh blinded him outright."
(235-237.)

The last line and a half almost literally reproduce the original—

Καὶ τὸ μέτωπον ἔχρισε καὶ ἑξενόφλου παρὰ μικρὸν.

This use of the verb "to anoint" is really "the vernacular" of one or two English counties. But there is an end of all things, even of the most evenly-contested fields. A young mouse-warrior, Meridarpax, or crumb-snatcher, enacts such deeds of valour, that Jove, after his Homeric fashion, is obliged to interpose. He first tries his normal remedy, the thunderbolt. But the mice do not care for his lightnings. The last lines of this amusing parody seem to shew that with plain-sailing folks you must use arguments suited to their comprehension. The mice took no heed to the hint from the angry heavens. They took to their heels with mouse-like alacrity, when a practical ally to the foe appeared in the field, in the shape of the squint-eyed, bandy-legg'd "crabs." These finished the work by lopping off the mice's tails—

"Then sank the sun,
And so this one day's war at last was done."

Enough has been quoted in the above sketch of the Battle of Frogs and Mice to exhibit something of the translator's powers. We may add, that very rarely indeed have we noted a word (and there are several out-of-the-way words in the Greek of this poem), to his rendering of which we can take exception.

If he needs anything, it is continual polish. Here and there, there looks out a certain ruggedness of versification, which perhaps strikes us more in blank versé than anywhere else. If Mr Norgate is indeed about to launch another version of the Iliad, we hope that, in justice to his powers of translation, which are not inconsiderable, he will not despise the "*limæ labor et mora*" which Horace recommends.



RESULTS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL INSTRUCTION—TESTED BY THE UNIVERSITIES.*



We have found no difficulty in ascertaining what is taught at these schools; to discover what and how much is learnt in them is difficult, and is only roughly practicable. The range and methods of teaching have been amply explained to us; the success of these methods can only be tried by imperfect tests, and must to a considerable extent be matter of opinion. The class-lists and lists of prize-men at the two Universities furnish something like a criterion of the attainments in scholarship and mathematics of the abler and more industrious boys; and these lists, with the information we have received from other sources, appear to shew that a fair proportion of classical honours at least is gained by the public schools, and that those who enter the Universities from the highest forms of these schools are on the whole well-taught classical scholars.

These, however, notoriously form a small proportion of the boys who receive a public school education. The great mass of such boys expose themselves to no tests which they can possibly avoid, and there are hardly any data for ascertaining how they acquit themselves in the easy examinations which must be passed in order to obtain a degree. The test, which we proposed to apply, of a direct and simple examination of a certain proportion of the boys, having been declined by the schools, we have taken such other means as appeared to be open to us, in addition to those supplied by common observation and experience, for enabling ourselves to form a correct judgment.

The opinions expressed on this subject by Tutors and Professors at Oxford or Cambridge—opinions to which the ability and experience of these gentlemen add great weight—are not uniform, nor was it likely that they should be so. Some Colleges are fed chiefly from the more hard-working schools; some from those where the average of wealth is higher, and that of industry and attainment lower. Some, again, from their reputation and from the comparative strictness of their entrance-examination, are resorted to only by tolerably good scholars, whilst others open their doors more widely. There is, however, on the whole a greater agreement than we should

have expected to find in persons of different experience and different ways of thinking consulted separately. And the most important part of their evidence, for our present purpose, consists of statements of fact.

An undergraduate at Oxford has to pass four examinations before obtaining his degree, the first of which must be passed before he can matriculate, and is imposed by his College. He goes in for his first University examination ("Responsions"), either in his first term or as soon afterwards as he is thought to be capable of facing this ordeal; for a second ("Moderation"), about the end of his second year; for the third, some two years afterwards. At Cambridge there is no matriculation test except at Trinity, and the "previous examination" passed about the fourth or fifth term of residence stands instead of both Responsions and Moderations.

The standard of the matriculation examination varies at different Colleges. At Christ Church a candidate is expected to construe a passage (which he has read before) of Virgil and another of Homer, to write a bit of Latin prose, to answer some simple grammatical questions, and shew some acquaintance with arithmetic. About one-third failed, we are informed, in 1862, to surmount this trial. "Very few can construe with accuracy a piece from an author they profess to have read. We never try them with an unseen passage. It would be useless to do so." "Tolerable Latin prose is very rare. Perhaps one piece in four is free from bad blunders. A good style is scarcely ever seen. The answers we get to simple grammar questions are very inaccurate." In arithmetic they are stated to have improved; but "the answers to the questions in arithmetic do not encourage us to examine them in Euclid or algebra." "Of those whom we reject some are rejected finally, others are allowed another trial. We require the latter to read with a tutor for six months or a year; and if, after this interval, they shew sufficient improvement to warrant us in believing that they will pass the University examinations, we admit them. This plan usually succeeds. Hence we may conclude that, had more regard been paid to the requirements of the University at the close of their school career, we should not have found it necessary to reject them in the first instance." Of the 218 undergraduates

* From the Report of the Public Schools' Commissioners, vol. i. pp. 23-26.

on the Christ Church books in 1861, 77 came from Eton, 28 from Harrow, 21 from Westminster, 24 from the other schools included in our Commission. The Etonians came mostly from the upper fifth form.

Of the other Colleges some add to the subjects of examination two books of Euclid; not one, we believe, ventures to put before a candidate a passage of Latin or Greek which he has not read before. The proportion of failures appears generally to be smaller than at Christ Church. At Exeter, which, in 1861, had 180 undergraduates, including 57 public school men, it is estimated at one-fifth. At Colleges which are not full, and have a direct pecuniary interest in being lax, the test, a slight one at best, obviously vanishes altogether.

The proportion who are able to write Latin "tolerably"—the word is vague, but tutors do not differ very widely in their standard of "tolerable" Latin—and to answer easy grammatical questions fairly, is generally calculated at about one-half, or a little more or less. As to the number who could construe, if called upon, an easy bit of Latin or Greek not seen before, the conjectures vary. One-fourth, two-fifths, one-half, are proportions suggested; three-fifths or two-thirds for Latin, and two-fifths or one-third for Greek, are estimates given respectively by tutors at Trinity and St John's, Cambridge. The failures on admission at Trinity, where no Latin prose composition is required, were in two years about one-third.

The subjects of the first University examination at Oxford are a Greek and a Latin book, such as two Greek plays and the Georgics (chosen by the candidate himself) to be construed and parsed; a paper of very elementary questions in Latin and Greek grammar; an easy piece of English for translation into Latin prose; arithmetic, to vulgar fractions and decimals; and the first two books of Euclid, or algebra to simple equations. The matter of the second ("Moderations") is, for one who does not try for honours, just the same, except that of the Greek and Latin authors, one must be an orator and one a poet (three short orations of Cicero and six books of Homer are enough), and that algebra is carried as far as easy quadratic equations, and Euclid to the end of the third book. A very elementary paper on logic may be chosen, instead of Algebra and Euclid.

The number who are either "plucked" at Responsions, or withdraw their names from conscious inability to succeed, is reckoned by Mr Furneaux and Mr Riddell at about one-fourth. Mr Ogle, a late Responsions Examiner, gives a more unfavourable estimate. Of 168 candidates on a very recent occasion, only 101 passed; 31

were plucked, and 16 took off their names. Of the 47 who thus failed, he proves by an analysis of the papers that 43 failed so universally as to shew that they were "utterly unfit to undergo any examination whatever."

Easy as the examination is, the standard of accuracy in it is low; occurring, so early, it is to a considerable extent a test—a very low test—of school work. Mr Furneaux, however, states that "it is notorious that a very large number of those who pass their responsions without failure, have only been made fit to do so by one or two terms of hard work and diligent teaching in this place."

These facts and figures do not indicate an average of classical attainment which can by any stretch of indulgence be deemed satisfactory. We are further told that there is a great want of accurate "grounding," perceptible sometimes even in elegant scholars; that the knowledge of history and geography, though better than it was, is still very meagre; and that there are great deficiencies observable in English composition, reading, and spelling. Mr Riddell says—

"Taking the University course to mean no more than the minimum required of pass-men, the number of those who come up unprepared to follow it may amount, perhaps, to one-fourth of the whole. (This would about answer to the number made up of those who are plucked at responsions, and of those who have to wait some time before they pass.) Deducting from this fraction those who are plucked from simple carelessness, and the extremely obtuse, and those who come to the University late from other professions, and those who have been educated by private tutors, the residue for which the schools are responsible will still be considerable.

"If the University course be taken on the level of the preparation for honours, the number who fail to follow it is of course much larger. But more than half of these are certainly men who do not come up insufficiently prepared to take advantage of it, but simply do not give their time to study after their arrival at the University. In the case of these men, much knowledge is actually lost during their University residence. A small portion of the others are men who have no ability to spare. For the remainder the schools are responsible; they are persons who were allowed as boys, to carry their idleness with them from form to form, to work below their powers, and merely to move with the crowd; they are men of whom something might have been made, but now it is too late; they are grossly ignorant, and have contracted slovenly habits of mind. The general defect of permitted idleness operates, therefore, to

the extent indicated, in the way of sending boys up to the University unprepared to avail themselves of the University course of study."—Appendix C.

It is impossible to misapprehend the effect which this state of things produces, and must produce, on the studies of the Universities. In the case of those who do not read for honours, at all events, the work of the first two years is, as has been seen, simply school work—work proper for the upper forms of a large school. The usual age of matriculation at Oxford (no record is kept at Cambridge) is between 18 and 19. Of 430 who matriculated in 1862, only 22, or 5 per cent., were below 18 years of age, while 209, or 49 per cent., had attained the age of 19. It follows that, with a great mass of men, school education—and that education one which barely enables them at last to construe a Latin and Greek book, poet and orator, chosen by themselves, to master three books of Euclid, and solve a problem in quadratic equations—is prolonged to the age of 20 or 21. It is justly observed by Mr Kitchen that, though a thorough general education is an advantage of the highest value, this is not a general education. To give such instruction as this is not the proper business of a University; and we are not surprised to find that, in the opinion of some of the ablest and most experienced tutors, the whole course suffers both in depth and width. Men whose abilities lead them to other than classical subjects, are impeded and sometimes stopped by the want of early accurate training. "We feel that the most we can do for men who come up deficient in knowledge of grammar, history, language, &c., is to provide something for them to do; the time for real progress seems in many cases to be absolutely past." "Instead of making progress," says another witness, Mr Hedley, a gentleman of great judgment and experience, "a few years ago the University (of Oxford) had to make its course commence with more elementary teaching, and to insist on the rudiments of arithmetic and a more precise acquaintance with the elements of grammar. Tutors felt that it was degrading both to themselves and to the University to descend to such preliminary instruction, but the necessity of the case compelled them." The time demanded for education, and therefore the expense of it, appear to be on the increase; and the Universities are practically closed to men whose means or destination in life do not permit them to give up after leaving school three or four additional years, about half of which are spent merely in school work, and the remaining two partly upon Latin and Greek.*

* Dr Moberly (Winchester Evidence, 540) observes, "I consider it is a very good thing boys should stay on and receive

To the question whether the general standard of classical scholarship among candidates for University distinctions has declined or advanced, we have received different answers. This standard is affected little or not at all by the ignorance of the "passmen." With respect to Oxford, Professor Conington is of opinion—and his opinion, from his opportunities of knowledge and capacity to judge, may be taken as nearly conclusive—that the standard of composition (except in Greek prose) is on the whole somewhat declining, but that translation and critical scholarship are decidedly improving. The Master of Balliol thinks (distrusting his own judgment) that there has been some general decline, but that the alteration is rather in kind than in degree. Scholarship has diminished in accuracy, he thinks, but increased in range. Mr Riddell sees no symptoms of decline. These gentlemen are all eminent scholars. Coupling their evidence with that supplied to us by the Provost of King's and other competent judges at both Universities, we arrive at the conclusion that the general standard of scholarship has not really deteriorated, while the knowledge of the Greek language, and acquaintance with Greek authors, has considerably increased; that if there has been a slight fall in some respects, there has been a perceptible rise in others; but that the scholarship of the present day differs somewhat from that of twenty years ago, from the greater attention now paid to the substance of the authors read, to philology, and to translation. It is generally agreed that the greater attention now given at most schools to mathematics, history, and modern languages, whilst it has advanced those subjects and proved beneficial by enlarging and stimulating the mind, has not injured scholarship.

A decided expression of opinion as to the merits of different schools, and their responsibility for the defects which have been pointed out, was not to be looked for from these gentlemen. Few of them indeed have been able to institute comparisons or form distinct conclusions on this point. The best scholars, they generally agree, come from the old public schools, and from those which, like Marlborough and Cheltenham, have been framed on the same model; the public schools send also (and in this Eton has a certain pre-eminence) the idlest and most ignorant men. The

the education of boys till 18. The age at which young men leave the university has been increased at least a year since I went to Oxford. They go there now, on an average, a year later; the three years of residence have become more nearly four on account of the multiplied examinations; the consequence is that 22 or 23 is the age to which they attain at the university; and I own I think the course of training at Oxford is too boyish for that age. I wish to terminate the boyish age for that capable of maturer studies rather sooner."

endowed grammar-schools commonly send their best scholars, who are drawn to the Universities by the hope of distinguishing themselves; private tuition generally furnishes men who are exceptionally backward from dulness, idleness, or ill health. In one subject, however, mathematics, the public schools hold a position of marked inferiority. Mr Price, Sedleian Professor of Natural Philosophy, Oxford, writes:—

"I do observe a very marked difference between young men coming to this University from the great public schools, and from other schools or from private tutors, as to their mathematical attainments. The young men from public schools are far worse prepared. Whatever time they may have given to the subject, it does not appear to me that they have given that study and attention to it which has generally been so profitably bestowed elsewhere. Assuming the ability of the young men to be equal, not only do I find the attainments of those from other schools to be greater, but I find them to be better grounded and to have learnt the elements more thoroughly and more carefully. Seldom do I meet with young men from the public schools who know more than the bare elements of mathematics; whereas others have gone through a sound course of geometry, which I take to be a most excellent disciplinary exercise, and have often well studied the principles of the modern analytical methods. This is frequently the case with young men who come from the Universities and schools of Scotland, and from schools in England of the class just below the large public schools. It has not come within my experience to observe, that the ability of young men from public schools who study mathematics is lower, or that their taste for the subject is less than that of young men who come to us from other places; in many cases, as might have been expected, their abilities are greater and their tastes are stronger. I am referring to cases within my own experience of some of the cleverest young men from the public schools, who, through want of opportunity or of instruction, have come to us sadly deficient, but in their academical course have acquired valuable and extensive mathematical knowledge, and in the later University examinations have excelled others who were superior to them in the early part of their career. In proof of these statements I would call your attention to the circumstances of our mathematical scholarships. There are two annual scholarships which have been established for nineteen years, and are open to the whole University. The junior scholarships, as it is called, is open for competition to young men up to nine terms' standing, and

not afterwards. The senior scholarship is open to Bachelors of Arts until the 26th term from matriculation inclusive. Both are awarded for proficiency in mathematical attainments. As the junior scholarship comes early in the academical course of study, it is plain that the greater part of the knowledge which is the subject of examination for that prize must be acquired at school, whereas the knowledge which is necessary for the senior will be usually obtained at the University. Now the junior scholarship has never been gained by a young man from the great public schools. It has been several times gained by students from Merchant Taylors', from Christ's Hospital, from Cowbridge in South Wales, as well as from other schools; but not once, I believe, by a young man from the great public schools. The senior scholarship, on the other hand, has been gained three, if not four, times by Eton men, three times by Rugby men, as well as twice by young men from Christ's Hospital, and twice by young men from Cowbridge. It is, I presume, unnecessary to say more on this particular subject."—Appendix C.

The candidates for matriculation, he adds, from public schools "who come under my view, can, in many cases, scarcely apply the rules of arithmetic, and generally egregiously fail in questions which require a little independent thought and common sense." Mr Hammond, tutor of Trinity, Cambridge, gives evidence to a similar effect.

From the evidence of which we have here given a brief account, the following conclusions appear to follow:—

That boys who have capacity and industry enough to work for distinction, are, on the whole, well taught, in the article of classical scholarship, at the public schools;

But that they occasionally shew a want of accuracy in elementary knowledge, either from not having been well grounded, or from having been suffered to forget what they have learnt;

That the average of classical knowledge among young men leaving school for college is low;

That in arithmetic and mathematics, in general information, and in English, the average is lower still, but is improving;

That of the time spent at school by the generality of boys, much is absolutely thrown away as regards intellectual progress, either from ineffective teaching, from the continued teaching of subjects in which they cannot advance, or from idleness, or from a combination of these causes;

That in arithmetic and mathematics the public schools are specially defective, and that this observation is not to be confined to any particular class of boys.

ON TEACHING ETYMOLOGY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.



ONE of the reasons why Etymology should form a distinct and important element in the course of study adopted in our country, arises from the fact, so well known to every one, that the English language is compounded of many different elements. One of the most distinguished masters in the science of language has declared, that no other tongue has drawn contributions from so many different sources. There is no quarter of the globe from which something has not been imported into our language. Very much has been derived, of course, from the Saxon, the Danish, and the French; much also from the Latin and the Greek tongues; something also from the Celtic. But mixed therewith there may be detected words from the dialects of Spain, India, and even of China. Of course only a small proportion of words belongs to any of the last named sources. If we were to notice carefully the words most commonly employed by us in ordinary conversation, we should find that the great majority would be traceable to a Saxon root. The same result would be obtained if we were to examine a page of an ordinary book, or a column of any well-written newspaper. Some writers have endeavoured to ascertain the number of words now in common use in the English language. Various calculations have been made, and it may possibly be true that not one of them is wholly free from error. Assuming, however, the computation that we have in written English about 43,000 words, we shall find that not fewer than 29,000 may be traced, directly or indirectly, to a classical fountain; while about 13,000 come from the Teutonic stock, and the remainder from miscellaneous sources. It is almost impossible for any one except a professed philologist to substantiate this statement, but any one may satisfy himself of its probable correctness by turning over a few pages of any good English dictionary, and he will perhaps be astonished to find that our tongue has derived so many words from the classic languages of Greece and Rome.

If these statements be anywhere near the truth, then it becomes apparent that no one who is wholly ignorant of both these languages can be thoroughly well-versed in the force of English terms. It is not the purpose of this paper to shew the importance of the study of Latin and Greek, and therefore we turn aside from the train of thought thus suggested, and will confine our-

selves within much narrower limits. We wish briefly to indicate how much real knowledge may be wrapped up in words, and how interesting and instructive the study of words may be made in the hands of a skilful and an earnest teacher. And it is no slight recommendation to the pursuit of this subject to be able to add, that the teacher himself will continually find something new, something in which he may himself take a real interest. Nor must it be forgotten that the habit of tracing up the lineage of words is in itself a most useful intellectual exercise. No system of education has ever been considered complete which did not embrace within itself some provision for the study of language. For language is the outward expression of thought, and so closely have these two things become welded, together, that it is now almost, if not quite, impossible to pursue any chain of thought without clothing it quite unconsciously in words. It is obvious to remark that it is almost impossible to begin too soon to familiarise the mind with the use and peculiarities of that instrument, by means of which it must learn to convey its own impressions to others, and in return receive impressions from others. Nothing can be unimportant in education which will help to familiarise the mind with the laws of thought. No time will be wasted, no labour lost, which will help to implant the habit of striving after clearness of conception about the exact meaning of words. Some of the most deplorable controversies that have ever torn mankind asunder, owed much of their bitterness, if not their origin, to the careless way in which language is sometimes used on the one side, and equally perverted on the other. It is perfectly certain that many public disputes, and many private quarrels, would never have occurred, if men had better understood the use of language,—that noble gift which has been truly described as the one characteristic, that above all others in this world distinguishes man from every other creature. The importance of its study has ever been recognised in all the higher systems of education; but it may be questioned whether even here the very great advantage of ceaseless attention to etymology has always been sufficiently allowed. Every teacher of experience knows how important it is for him to keep in view the theory of the association of ideas. If he can link a new idea in his pupil's mind to one already familiar, he feels pretty sure that the new idea will be retained. He knows that it is far

easier for a boy to remember fifty facts that are linked together by some chain of natural connection, than to recollect half a dozen that are wholly unconnected with each other. In accordance with this principle it is clear, that in learning a language it is far easier to acquire it by tracing out whole families of words than by any other plan. It is easy to forget the meaning of a word that occurs but seldom in the language you may be learning; but you will not be by any means so likely to forget it if you happen to have gone through the process of tracing its lineage.

And as this is true of the words of any one language, so is it true of the words of two or more languages. How often may the learner be taught to link indissolubly in his memory words in Latin, French, German, and English. For example, he will more readily remember the French word "vingt" if he has been taught to associate it with the Latin word "viginti." And so with "un," "deux," "trois," "quatre," "cinq," &c., when associated in the mind with "unus," "duo," "tres," "quatuor," "quinque," &c. So again, "mère," "père," "frère," and "sœur," evidently connect themselves with "mater," "pater," "frater," and "soror" respectively. Not quite so plain is "fromage" from "forma," yet it is pretty certain that here we have the true derivation of the French word, because the curds have to be placed in a kind of "frame" or "form" before they can assume the shape of "cheese." So our word "damsel" may be traced through "demoiselle," "dominicella" (Italian), to "domina." But one of the most striking examples of the value of tracing out the value of a word, may be found in the Latin verb "specere," to "see" or "look." Professor Mux Müller has shewn how its root is found imbedded in the Sanscrit and Aryan languages; and then how it has sent its offshoots into Greek, German, and, of course, French and English. In Greek we find "skeptomai," "to look," and many derivations from it; in Latin, "specto," &c.; in French, "respector;" in old High-German, "spêhôn," in English, "to spy," in Italian, "spiare." It would occupy far too much space to trace out the numerous words derived from these various forms, but it may be permitted to dwell for a moment upon one of them, the word "species." From this Latin word was derived the French "espèce," which seems to have been adopted by the mediæval apothecaries to denote some peculiar drugs or special medicines. In short, it became a technical word, and from it was formed another word, "epice," "spice," and thence "epicier," a "grocer," or seller, originally, of drugs and spices. Thus, says

Professor Max Müller, "if you try for a moment to trace 'spicy,' or 'a well-spiced' article, back to the simple root 'spec,' to 'look at' (and so to 'distinguish'), you will understand that marvellous power of language which, out of a few simple elements, has created a variety of names hardly surpassed by the endless variety of nature herself."

But the chief object of this paper is to point out how etymology may, with a fair prospect of success, be introduced more generally into many of our elementary schools, where of course no language but English can be taught. The first step here seems to be, to begin with compound words, such as "apple-tree." And perhaps in passing, it may be necessary for the sake of some of our younger readers, to define what we mean by a "compound" word. It is one that is composed of two complete words. Such are the following, — "cornfield," "haystack," "rosetree," "roundhead," "freeman," "blackbird," "foresight," "afternoon." The young scholar might soon be taught to distinguish between compound nouns, such as those just given; and compound adjectives, such as "warlike," "headstrong," "allseeing," "heartrending;" and compound verbs, such as "overdo," "fulfil," "undergo," "understand;" and compound adverbs, such as "herein," "therein," "whereby," "hereafter," "sometimes," "perhaps," "thenceforward," "somehow," "nevertheless;" and compound prepositions, such as "into," "throughout." Nor will it be difficult to treat "derivative" words in the same way. Children instinctively love to dive a little below the surface. They are naturally fond of making discoveries. To this ungovernable curiosity may be traced the annihilation of many an elaborate toy. Every one has heard of the boy, who cut open the end of a drum, or stripped off the back of a fiddle, that he might discover what was the cause of the sounds given out. This in-born love of knowledge should always be encouraged, when it does not lead to positive mischief. And if children can once be led to see that secrets are often wrapped up in words, they will ever afterwards strive to crack the shell for themselves in order to get at the kernel. Let them see that a "derivative" word is one that has been "derived" from some simpler word or root, either by the change of some letters, or by the addition of prefixes or affixes, or by the combination of each of these modes at the same time. Derivative words are much more numerous in English than compound words; hence they offer a much wider field for exercise in the very important art of learning to trace the origin of words, and thence of acquir-

ing a knowledge of their real force and meaning. Our language contains a great number of "derivative" nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. A few of each shall be adduced by way of illustration. "Vassalage," "lawyer," "mockery," "archery," "gosling," "streamlet," "truth," "strength," "health," "gamester," "punster," "spinster," "laughter." It will be seen that all these are nouns. The following are derivative adjectives: "golden," "northern," "righteous," "lawless," "handsome," "troublesome," "stormy," "disloyal." Of derivative verbs and adverbs, we have room for only the subjoined specimens: "bathe," "shelve," "widen," "cleanse," "misjudge," "withstand," "sputter," (adverbs) "asleep," "ahead," "afloat," "bravely."

Thus far everything may be mastered from an acquaintance with our own language only; and it will be found upon trial, that a great deal of intellectual activity may be developed even by this much; but much more may be done with the assistance of a knowledge of Latin prefixes and suffixes; and of course much more again can be accomplished, if there be added only a moderate acquaintance with a Latin and Greek vocabulary.

If any should object that in elementary schools no time can be found for the introduction of this subject, the writer would reply, that in his judgment, all the time given to it would be well repaid by the increased intellectual activity and quickness in mastering any new statement, which hence would be developed in the mind of the scholar. It is an acknowledged fact, that very much of the oral information given by teachers, and very much of the instruction that might be acquired by reading books, is wholly and entirely lost, in consequence of the inability of many of the children in our elementary schools to understand many words beyond those which they are accustomed to hear

at home and in the street. Nor must it be forgotten, as one of the recommendations in favour of etymology in elementary schools, that a boy's spelling may be often through it much improved, if the teacher himself knows how to point out where the difficulties in spelling different words really lie, and if he makes a point of using his chalk and board to trace out the connection of compound and derivative words with their roots. In doing this he will, as it were, dissect hard words before the eyes of his class, and thus rob spelling of half its terrors.

It would not be a hard task to point out, if the space allotted to this paper were not nearly exhausted, how the study of words will help also to throw light upon history and geography. It was long since noticed that the words used in our language to denote the ordinary kinds of flesh-meat are derived from the French; and it was rightly inferred that this fact illustrated the relationship that existed between the Norman conqueror and the Saxon serf, that the latter fed and tended the herds of cattle and the flocks of sheep, while it was chiefly the former that enjoyed the privilege of eating them. By a similar comparison of the languages from which are derived most words in the theological, military, naval, and musical sciences, we should be led to consider from what quarters much of our knowledge in these subjects has been derived. Theological terms are mainly derived from Greek and from Latin, thus pointing to the language in which the New Testament was written, and to that which the first evangelists of the western empire spoke; while military terms have come to us mainly through our warlike neighbours, the French, as many of our nautical terms are from Dutch and the Danish, and most of our musical ones from Italian.

J. G. C.

Correspondence.

MR MATTHEW ARNOLD ON PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR THE MIDDLE-CLASSES.

SIR,—Mr Matthew Arnold, in a recent article in *Macmillan's Magazine*, has "pronounced" upon the great subject of Middle-Class Education, and as his opinion carries with it not only the weight derived from his own reputation, but also additional force from the name he has inherited, the

theories he advocates, and the proposals he makes, are likely to receive considerable notice.

Allow me, then, to call attention to some few points connected with the views entertained by Mr Arnold. It must first be mentioned for the sake of those who have not seen the article referred to, that under the very irrelevant title of a "French Eton," Mr Arnold writes to urge the establishment throughout the country of schools

for the middle-classes, which shall be assisted by Government, and subject to a considerable extent to the control of the State.

His chief reasons for so earnestly desiring this radical change in the education of the great bulk of the people, are first, that the existing public schools, of the order he wishes, are utterly inadequate to the requirements of the times, both as regards numbers and cheapness; and, secondly, the assumption that private schools are almost valueless, not having what Mr Arnold asserts to be "indispensable guarantees," supervision and publicity. Thirdly, he argues that demand and supply in the matter of education is an "impotent principle;" that "while the mass of mankind know good butter from bad, and tainted meat from fresh, they do not know what they ought to demand in education, and therefore the demand cannot be relied on to give us the right supply." Taking Eton as his beau-ideal of a school, and imagining that every one else must equally think it deserving of the highest reputation, he places at the opposite, lowest end of the long scale of educational institutes, private schools, which he appears to include entirely, without any distinction whatever, in the advertised "educational home."

Then going far beyond the proposals of other would-be reformers of education, he urges State interference, as the grand panacea for the alleged host of ills under which he affirms the general public to be suffering in regard to the instruction and training of its youth.

Now, it must be a matter of very great astonishment to many that a gentleman in Mr Arnold's position, undertaking to propose such important schemes as those he has brought forward, should have thought it worth while to write as he has, either knowing far fewer facts than he ought to have made himself master of, or purposely keeping out of view what in common fairness should have been stated.

The whole subject is sure to be very thoroughly discussed before any grand movement takes place, and one would have thought that the best way of promoting the aim Mr Arnold has at heart would be the removal of hindrances to his scheme, and the calm and honest exposure of the inadequacy of present means of education, instead of an ignoring of the extensive machinery already at work. I know it is the fashion among men who have been educated at the public schools to speak and write contemptuously of private establishments. The propriety of this as a habit I am not going to discuss, but when a gentleman undertakes to advocate radical changes in any great system, it shews neither his fairness nor his wisdom to display his prejudices.

Whether rightly or wrongly, there is no doubt that the great mass of the English public vastly prefer private schools to the public institutions now existing. Nor is it difficult, I think, to understand this, for, as a rule, I maintain that, notwithstanding "the indispensable guarantees," public schools have been behind the age; they have adhered to antiquated methods of teaching; they have used old-fashioned class-books; the boys have received little individual attention; and many abuses of management and discipline have been prevalent.*

On the other hand, I am ready to assert that the existence of the Royal Commission on the Public Schools of England indirectly owes its existence to the strides taken in education by private schools, through which it has been seen that the public school system has become *effete*, and needs modernising.

I shall return to this topic presently. Meantime I would ask whether, even in the case of Eton, it is not notorious that boys go there, not so much for the instruction they receive, as because it is the most aristocratic school in the world, and because there is *ton* to be acquired there, such as is not to be equalled elsewhere. We have heard, I should think, sufficient within the last few years of the way in which at least certain branches of a liberal education are imparted in this great school, to warrant the declaration that the Eton system is behind the age.

Moreover, is it not a fact that all boys who are to do any real work, or to get a sound education at Eton, require supplementary private tuition, and that such a thing as an Eton boy going up directly from the college to a naval or military examination, and passing, is a phenomenon indeed?

But I will now address myself to the main question treated of in the paper in *Macmillan's Magazine*: viz., Why cannot we have throughout England, as the French have throughout France, as the Germans have throughout Germany, as the Swiss have throughout Switzerland, as the Dutch have throughout Holland, public schools under the control of the State?

The impossibilities seem to me to arise from two great causes. First, from the grand difference between our Government and those of the continental nations; and secondly, from the totally dissimilar habits of thought and feeling prevalent in England, as compared with those of the people of other European countries. We look with pity, if not with contempt, on a Government which interferes

* I could mention existing facts which would astound the public.

with, or undertakes the management of, domestic affairs. We would not even suffer a maximum and minimum price to be fixed for the necessities of life, and we should equally scorn the idea of the State offering to point out to us where our children shall go to school. Moreover, it is, I believe, an acknowledged principle that our Government, unlike many others, never presumes to help those who can well help themselves. Now I maintain that our middle classes are not in the wretched plight, with regard to the education of their children, which Mr Arnold would lead us to suppose. Throughout almost every part of the country, there are schools adapted to the wants of the different classes of the community. I do not affirm that these institutions are incapable of improvement, but I do say that they are not, with any fairness, to be placed in one category, and denominated, as they so sneeringly are by Mr Arnold, "educational homes." The best schools do not parade their names and offer their advantages in the advertisement columns of the *Times*; and hundreds, not to say thousands, of them do give all they promise in their prospectuses.

It is very easy to say that people do not know what to demand in education, but the statement does not contain self-evident truth, and even though uttered by Mr Arnold, is none the more a fact. By far the greater number of people do know what they wish their boys to be taught, and, with a little trouble, can readily ascertain whether their wishes are carried out. If they will not take the pains to make due inquiries before deciding on a school, or will not apply any means for testing the quality of the instruction their sons receive, they must not complain if they do not get what they require, any more than they can ask pity for getting "bad butter and tainted meat" through careless marketing. Our middle classes are quite capable of helping themselves in this matter of the education of their children, therefore they will never court—will not even allow—the interference of the State, and put themselves under its control.

With regard to the part taken by Government in the establishment and inspection of elementary schools, the aid has been given quite in accordance with the principle I have previously mentioned. But even in this case of State assistance, many of the wisest and best friends of education entertain and express grave doubts whether, by any means, unmixed good is being accomplished, and whether the knowledge imparted under the present inspectorate is that which best fits those who receive it for their future work in the world.

Much might be written of the insuperable

obstacles to the establishment of the system proposed by Mr Arnold, which result from the habits of thought and feeling which characterize our people. I can, however, do little more than indicate a few leading points. Among these, I would mention the class feeling which universally prevails. English pride is proverbial throughout the continent—evidently shewing that no such exclusiveness exists as a hindrance abroad—and this would be an enormous difficulty here in the way of public middle-class schools. For if these were to be established in such numbers as that all gradations of rank and wealth among the masses of the people should be properly accommodated, without offence to class feeling, the expense would be something enormous to contemplate, and the working of the whole machinery harmoniously and successfully, would be rendered well nigh impossible.

Again, there is among English parents a widely spread feeling of dislike to the divided responsibility of the existing public schools. At present the head master is in *some* degree answerable to the father for the management and instruction of the boy; but this small degree would be yet more reduced by the overshadowing power of the Home Office, and a man would feel he had no practically accessible court of appeal, no (to him) responsible head in the school which acknowledged only the control of the State. Thousands of parents would, on this score alone, decline to send their boys to institutions befriended by the powerful aid proposed by Mr Arnold. Once more, nothing will ever overcome the feeling of Englishmen, that to be in any way beholden to the Government for assistance, without giving an equivalent for "value received," is so far living on charity. The same sentiment which has in numberless cases led men and women to endure starvation, rather than enter the workhouse, would prevent people of true English feeling from sending their sons to schools receiving State money assistance. You might name such institutions "*Royal*," but assuredly they would be immediately called "*Charity Schools*," and never would be thought of in any other light by the majority of men and boys. There may be some degree of prejudice, I would even say that there is some folly in the extent to which such sentiments as I have spoken of may be carried, but I am sure we all feel the error is on the right side, and that the day will be a disastrous one, which shall see the English character less sensitive on the matter of independence of immediate money-aid from Government.

As Mr Arnold says, so I say, "This matter of State intervention in the establishment of public

instruction is so beset with misrepresentation and misconception that I must return to it again." In a future paper I will speak of evils really existing in the private school system, and propose remedies which would, I believe, prove far more effectual for general good than the establishment of Government institutions for secondary education.—I am, &c.

B. A.

March 1864.

THE REVISED CODE IN SCOTLAND.

Permit me to present through your columns, the views of the Revised Code entertained by me and many of my brethren in Scotland, and to suggest some amendments which might tend to make it work more satisfactorily. To withdraw it altogether would be more satisfactory, as it is unsound in principle. It has broken faith with the teachers; and in all its details, it bears the marks of a hand totally unacquainted with practical education, and its overthrow would give satisfaction to all true friends of education.

1. Any one at all acquainted with the working of our school system under the Old Code, will agree that the Revised Code is quite uncalled for, inasmuch as the Old Code had wrought well in elevating the education of the country, and improving the status of the teachers, and it would have been more consistent with sound policy, to have modified it according to circumstances, than to have introduced such a sweeping change.

The principal plea for the New Code is the great expense entailed by the Old; but that has been much exaggerated. Besides, by a modification of the pupil-teacher system, the expense might have been lessened; and by making the office of teacher more worth aspiring after, suitable candidates for the office would never be wanting. But the tendency of the New Code is to make the teacher's office more irksome, his work more mechanical, his payment less, and his status lower. Now, since under the Old Code the expense of training a pupil teacher during seven years, amounted to, say £180, in a school with two pupil-teachers, the expense during the seven years training would stand thus:—

2 Pupil teachers,	£360
1 Master at, say £20,	140
2 Pupil Teachers for two years,	60

£560 = £80

per annum. Were three-fourths of this endowment to be paid to the teacher, it would reduce the expenditure; the teacher's office would be raised in public esteem; parents would be glad to apprentice their sons, and have them trained as teachers without expense to the country, and the education of the country would not suffer. As a test for efficiency, there might be an individual examination of the

scholars, which would be quite sufficient to gain one object aimed at by the Revised Code; as teachers will do quite as much for the honour of their school as to bring money to it.

Whatever may have been the result of the Royal Commission in England, and much of it has been shewn to have been founded on insufficient evidence, it can be no reason for extending the operation of the Code to Scotland, where schools are generally on quite a different footing, and where no Royal Commission has as yet been appointed to make any investigation.

2. The principles on which the Revised Code is based, are unsound and unjust, and its operation partial and impracticable.

It is obvious to any man, that "payment for results" in education, is not "payment for work done." On the contrary, the reverse is often the case. Those scholars that cost least labour, are most likely to be paid for, while the dull and home neglected, costing the teacher the greatest amount of labour, are not likely to bring him any payment.

Again, another principle of the Revised Code acted on, if not openly avowed in the Revised Code, that the children of the working classes ought not to get so good an education as they have been getting of late, is equally illiberal and unsound. In an article in the January number of the *Museum*, we find that Mr Canon Mosely reports on the results of official inquiries from Commanders, that it is a fact worthy of observation, that so long as a low "standard" of education was affixed to the education of the boys of the Greenwich School, lest it should render them dissatisfied with the hardships of a seafaring life, they were found to be dissatisfied with those hardships, and ran away from their ships; and that, now that it is fixed at a high standard, they are not dissatisfied with them, they do not run away from their ships, and are more steady, as it is termed, than other boys. Now, the Revised Code is quite unsuited for Scotland, where a high standard of teaching has always been considered as indispensable; and where rich and poor frequently pass from the same benches at the parish school, to the same classes in the university.

To make payment depend on mental qualifications, bodily health, regular attendance, home influences, besides fortuitous circumstances on the day of trial, such as the season of the year, the state of the weather, the prevalence of an epidemic, the spleen of parents, or the disinclination of any child to attend, or to work out his exercise faithfully, is evidently unjust.

In so far as the principles of the Revised Code are unsound, we can of course suggest no remedy. As a remedy for its injustice, instead of making the result of the examination depend upon things over which the teacher can have no control, and of making the pecuniary grant for the year depend entirely

on the state of the school on the day of examination, which may not be its usual state, we would suggest that the examination be taken merely as an index of the year's work. For example, let the average attendance be 100 on the day of examination; only 80 may be present of these, say 20 may not have attended the 200 times required, while other 20 who had attended the required number of times, had left, and the remaining 20 were simply absent from school that day. From this it is evident, that although there is an average attendance of 100, only 60 are eligible to be present for examination. Suppose 10 to fail, only 50 would be paid for. Thus only about 16 per cent. of those eligible to be presented have failed; would it not be fair that the grant should be paid at this rate on the average attendance for the year?

The injustice that teachers will suffer during the period of transition from the Old to the New Code, in those schools that have more pupil-teachers than are required by the New Code, is so obvious that, as in many cases the whole grant will be swallowed up in paying pupil-teachers, I think it would only be the smallest modicum of justice, seeing these pupil-teachers were engaged by Government, and not by them, that teachers so situated should have their certificated augmentation at least during the apprenticeship of such pupil-teachers. This augmentation is theirs by right, having been pledged to them by Government, and ought not to have been taken from them without due compensation.

The Revised Code is also unfair in its operation, because the income from the Government is uncertain, while the expenditure on account of the regulations is certain; so that managers will, in most cases, shrink from the responsibility of guaranteeing salaries to pupil-teachers and teachers, and the whole risk will be thrown upon the latter. The plain solution for all this injustice would be, 1st, that every certificated teacher should have his allowance from Government, in recognition of his certificate; and 2d, that the teacher be allowed to bring about the required results, with or without pupil-teachers, as he may think best.

In addition, it is unfair to the country, and disloyal to the House of Commons, that changes should be made on the Code (as in the matter of endowments) without their sanction, and that reports, going in the teeth of the Vice-President's views, should be suppressed. Such reports, probably the most valuable of all, should be ordered to be produced and printed.

The partial character of the measure may be seen from the way in which it deals with different classes of schools, *e.g.* the teachers under the Poor-Law Board have their augmentation still secured to them; one class of schools, with large and liberal endowments, have the full advantage of the Government grants, whilst other classes, perhaps with small en-

dowments, have these practically arrested by being deducted from the Government grants to such schools. Now why should not even-handed justice be dealt out to all classes of schools?

Lastly, the Revised Code is impracticable, consistently with the system of school organisation, which is recognised as the best by all practical men, viz., one organisation for reading, and another for arithmetic, to suit the varied talents and tastes of boys. But the Revised Code would try to reduce all to one uniform standard. This is as absurd as it is injurious.

8. Supposing the principle of payment for results to be retained in the payment of Capitation Grants to schools, I would suggest the following amendments:—

1. That any child who has not been a year at school should be paid for at the rate of the infant class at whatever age.

2. In order that teachers may not be tempted to keep children from passing to the highest standard so long as they think they may be another year at school, children *who have passed all the standards* should be paid for till at least thirteen years of age.

3. Children able to pass the first standard should be allowed to be presented, though under seven or eight, which latter age is early enough for the compulsory examination of children, considering that many, from various causes, are not put to school till seven.

In conclusion, the numerous petitions against the Revised Code from the leading educationists in almost every parish in Scotland, should prove to Parliament that something is seriously wrong, demand their respect and attention, and point to a commission of inquiry into the state of education in Scotland as absolutely necessary.—I am, your most obedient Servant,

A SCOTTISH SCHOOLMASTER.

THE ASSOCIATED BODY.

SIR,—Allow me to congratulate you on the successful carrying out of a most important policy, the amalgamation of the numerous periodicals devoted to education, which have been competing for our patronage, and in every way ruining one another. I have watched with pleasure the progress of incorporation recently, and am glad to see it well-nigh completed by the union of the young, but vigorous and hearty, *Museum* with the old valued *Journal* and its numerous parasites. I augur for the new magazine a career of great usefulness and success. We can support *one* good educational monthly—and shame on us all if we do not rally round it unitedly—though we could not keep going all the varied crew that a short time since were demanding our allegiance, and reproaching us for our supposed neglect. My business, however, is at present with what I

regard, with all its faults and shortcomings, as the most useful and successful of our teachers' associations—"The Associated Body of Church Schoolmasters in England and Wales." I have just received its "Eleventh Annual Report," and find the society very naturally lamenting the decease of *The Educational Guardian*, which owed its origin to them, and had ever supported them, and devoted much of its space to the reports of their meetings, and the consideration of its claims upon teachers. I find, however, on another page that the *English Journal of Education*, with which the *Educational Guardian* has been incorporated, offered them exactly similar facilities, and I trust the now united Journal will serve them in a similar manner, and that they and others will gain much by the establishment and use of an organ circulating among educationists generally, in the place of being confined principally to a sectional publication. In this, as in other respects, "union is strength," and division weakness.

But much as I value this society, and approve of its objects, and generally of its doings, I must take a friend's liberty to point out some of the blemishes which injure its reputation. I will confine myself to matters suggested by the report, &c, before me. In the first place, I cannot but be displeased with the very meagre accounts we have had of the Derby Meeting. In common with many others, I was unfortunately prevented from attending, and I think it is hard that more information has not been given to us. In former years the *Educational Guardian* gave a very full report of the discussions, and printed *verbatim* the papers read, and at that time the body itself generally appended to its report a far lengthier and more complete account of the proceedings than they have given this year, when only a meagre statement appeared in the educationals. The true policy seems to me to be, to get as full a report as possible in the periodicals and the general press, and to supply the members with the most complete account possible. Surely an annual volume of transactions is within reach. If the papers and discussions are of the value supposed, they ought to be supplied to us in full. The space now taken up

with the "List of Members" (which is comparatively useless matter), might be devoted with perhaps an additional sheet, to the more valuable report.

The accounts, too, of the Society do not appear in a satisfactory business-like form. We have always "supplementary statements" of receipts after the proper time, and many of the district lists are incomplete, or altogether absent. These things are excusable in a new society, but when the body has reached its eleventh year, it ought surely to have been able to make such arrangements as, if duly worked, would make its yearly accounts presentable in a complete form. The failure to do so argues either carelessness, indifference, or a want of business habits somewhere or other, and should be remedied; as it brings the Society and teachers generally into some disrepute among men of commercial habits who may chance to become acquainted with their operations.

Allow me to add, that I think the continuance of the rule that "the amount expended in any district shall not exceed *one-half* of its annual income," is a great mistake. The *minimum* payment to the general fund required of a district should be proportioned, not to its income, but to the number of members. Under this regulation a dormant association, doing nothing, and spending nothing, with a subscription of 1s. per member, can join the body by paying to the general fund 6d. per member; a more active association, spending a considerable sum on local means of improvement (a far more useful accession to the body in every way), with (say) a 5s. subscription must pay at the rate of 2s. 6d. per member to the general fund, or (as they do extensively) stay out. I think myself, "*not less than one shilling*" to the general fund should be required of each member, either paid through a district secretary from the district funds, or direct to the general secretary. Then the local subscription would not be affected, and the principle of no interference with local arrangements would be more fully carried out. If that be thought too little, the present virtual minimum contribution, at the rate of 1d. per member, might be retained.—I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

A TEACHER.

Notices of Books.

A Progressive Latin Anthology, for the use of Junior and Middle Classes in Schools. By the Rev. H. MUSGRAVE WILKINS, M.A. London. 1864.

Mr Wilkins's Latin Anthology consists of selections from Phaedrus, Ovid, Tibullus, Propertius, Catullus, and Martial. They are made with great

discrimination and taste, and are likely to interest in no common degree those for whom they are intended. In settling the texts of the various extracts, Mr Wilkins has had recourse to good editions, but he has not always observed the best as his guides. His extracts from Phaedrus are disfigured by readings which are far from good. Thus in

Table III. he has *multatus*, where *muleatus* is much to be preferred. In Table IV. he has *ferri* instead of *ferries*; and several more of a like nature could be pointed out. In Catullus, he has followed Lachmann, who is frequently very rash, and he has not followed him constantly. He prints *quoi* instead of *cui* according to Lachmann's text, but he gives *millia* instead of *milila*, notwithstanding the express rule which Lachmann has laid down on the subject in his Commentary on Lucretius.

Mr Wilkins has added at the end of the extracts notes, many of them selected, which are sensible and scholarly. He has also given short biographies of the poets from whose works his extracts are taken. These are on the whole good. He has occasionally failed to use the best writers. Thus his notice of Catullus shews no acquaintance with the work of Schwabe noticed in the *Museum*, and repeats the mistake in regard to Vatinnis, and the date of the death of Catullus, which Schwabe has corrected.

We can, notwithstanding these blemishes, confidently recommend the Progressive Latin Anthology as a well edited and exceedingly interesting selection from some of the best Latin poets.

C. Julii Caesaris Commentarii de Bello Gallico. Libri I.-V., from the text of Schneider, carefully revised; with various readings from the best extant editions, comprising those of Oudendorp, Herzog, Nipperdey, Eberling, Kraner, and others; elucidated by notes critical and explanatory, a lexicon of all the words in the text, and a series of easy reading lessons for beginners, designed as a first Latin reading book in schools. By A. K. IBBISTER, M.A., Head Master of the Stationers' Company Grammar School, London. Second edition enlarged and improved. London: Longmans. 1864.

Notwithstanding the folly of troubling beginners with various readings, the suspicious looking parade of German authorities for the same, the impropriety of calling a Latin vocabulary a lexicon, and the unskilfulness of designating the explanation of words and phrases in the vocabulary separately as "notes critical and explanatory," notwithstanding all these repellents of public favour, the first edition of Ibbister's *Cæsar* has been sold off in a few months, which the editor naturally takes for a proof that it supplies a real want in many classical schools.

The peculiarity of this school *Cæsar* is, that the text is preceded by forty-nine pages of easy reading lessons, intended to serve the purpose of a delectus; and the peculiarity of these reading-lessons is, that they are formed from the text of *Cæsar* itself, by giving the principal clause or clauses of each sentence, first alone, and then with the addition of phrases and subordinate clauses, till the very text of *Cæsar* is re-obtained. This is a happy idea: still these preliminary lessons want the variety which,

in the ordinary delectus, both relieves the tedium of slow progress, and insures to the beginner a sufficiently miscellaneous vocabulary. Another happy idea appears in the map of Gallia, prefixed to the second edition. Under the principal names, references are printed in parentheses to the passages in *Cæsar* where these names occur, and the pupil is thereby greatly assisted in tracing the course of *Cæsar's* campaigns.

The editor's promise to mark the quantity of the first and middle syllables in all doubtful cases, is as imperfectly fulfilled in this as in the former edition. In p. 1, the quantity of the middle syllable is marked in *divisa* and *legibus*, why not also the quantity of the first? Every page furnishes such examples.

Latin Prose Composition: the Construction of Clauses, with Illustrations from Cicero and Cæsar; together with a Vocabulary and Index. By JOHN MASSIE, A.M. Edinburgh. 1864.

The title of Mr Massie's book is apt to mislead. It contains no exercises on Latin composition. It lays down certain rules for turning English into Latin, and illustrates these rules by examples from *Cæsar* and *Cicero*. The great fault of the book is that it is very incomplete. There are many kinds of Latin composition that are omitted entirely; and some of the subjects which he has introduced are not discussed fully enough. Still the work shews very careful research, and throws out valuable hints which are not usually found in such works. It contains abundant evidence likewise of sound scholarship. Here and there, however, there are slips which must be corrected in any subsequent edition. Thus he says, "*ac* before a consonant, *atque* before a vowel," p. 181, as if *atque* were not used also before a consonant. He makes no distinction between *accedo* when followed by *quod* and when followed by *ut*. He introduces examples from *Cæsar* of the historical present followed by the imperfect subjunctive, but gives no caution to the scholar in regard to the matter. Many of his assertions are made too definitely, and several of the rules laid down are not illustrated by examples from either *Cæsar* or *Cicero*.

The Student's Manual of English Literature. A History of English Literature. By THOMAS B. SHAW, M.A. A New Edition, enlarged and re-written. Edited, with Notes and Illustrations, by WILLIAM SHAW, LL.D., &c. &c. London: Murray. 1864.

The characteristic of this work, as of the others of Mr Murray's "*Students' Manuals*," is thoroughness, and that not so much in connection with the whole, as in connection with the parts. Its leading feature is, that it devotes a considerable amount of space to the great names in the history of our literature, as

Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, and Scott, and condenses the information regarding secondary writers. This plan has been carried out with great success. The life and works of the really important men are allowed to occupy the student's attention for a sufficient time to make a lasting impression on his mind. Enough is said, too, regarding less important writers, to answer the requirements of examinations; any deficiencies left by Mr Shaw in this respect, having been fully supplied by the editor's valuable notes and illustrations. The book, however, is more remarkable for the amount and arrangement of its matter and the originality of its views (e.g. the classification of Shakespeare's plays according to their sources), than for the purity or elegance of its style. It is written in the easy, familiar style of the lecture-room, with its inevitable tendency to looseness and obscurity. We could have spared, too, an occasional ambiguity or solecism. "His first essays in English verse were a eulogistic poem on the king" (p. 218) should not have been allowed to pass. And "Witanagemote" (p. 11) is surely an oversight. These are but incidental blemishes, however; the author has succeeded admirably in investing his subject with interest to an uncommon degree. The book is made available for reference by an index of authors; a general index would have made it more so. A companion volume is in preparation, containing selections from the authors, in parallel chapters.

The Comprehensive English Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological. By JOHN OGILVIE, LL.D., Editor of the Imperial Dictionary. The Pronunciation adapted to the best modern usage, by RICHARD CULL, F.S.A. Illustrated. London: Blackie & Son. 1864.

This admirable dictionary occupies an intermediate position between the ordinary school dictionaries and the larger works, of which the Imperial Dictionary, by the same editor, may be taken as an appropriate example. It is in fact a condensation of the latter work, with other important features superadded. The main distinctive feature of the Imperial is its introduction and complete explanation of technological and scientific terms, for which, previously, the general reader had to consult a variety of special glossaries. This feature is also included prominently in the present work, and constitutes one of the chief elements of its value. We have also found it very useful from its containing many compound words, such as german-silver, red-tape, ice-cream, &c., which are not usually given in such works. It also contains useful explanations of foreign words and phrases in common use, as *pari passu*, *Jenizer-effendi*, *crevasse*, *l'envoy*, *malapropos*; as well as of abbreviations, as LL.D., S.S.C., &c. &c. Etymology is treated with brevity, but with great care and intelligence; and in this respect, the book is valuable

to an unusual degree. The explanations of scientific terms are illustrated by beautifully-executed woodcuts, which are worth pages of description. In an appendix, we have copious vocabularies of classical and Scripture proper names, and of modern geographical names, with their pronunciation. Indeed we know no single volume that may be more advantageously and confidently consulted on so great a variety of topics.

The History of England; with a Sketch of our Indian and Colonial Empire. By WILLIAM FRANCIS COLLIER, LL.D. London; T. Nelson & Sons. 1864.

We can never see a statue or a castle properly until we get at least two views of it. The same principle, indeed, lies at the root of the theory of binocular vision. And opticians tell us that a one-eyed man, in looking at a solid, moves his head from side to side in order to obtain by two successive acts of vision with one eye, the same effect which other men obtain at once with two. In viewing Windsor Castle, the house of our kings from the Conqueror downwards, you must not only look at it from the town, or the Eton side, but you must go to the Long Walk, or out to the Forest, and so get a view of its towers and turrets in the broader aspect. Something like the same principle has been acted upon by Dr Collier in his two Histories of England, of which the larger and more recent is contained in the handsome volume before us. In his smaller and justly popular school history, he has followed the succession of dynasties and sovereigns. In the work before us, he takes a different view-point. He has arranged it in epochs according to the great landmarks which stand out prominently from the nineteen centuries of our national existence. It will thus appear that this work is no mere expansion of the author's British History. The material has been wholly rearranged, and that on a new principle, so that those who advance from the former to this one will have their energies excited by the study of a "new concrete," which at the same time will fit in at every point to the framework of their previous knowledge.

In dealing with the details of each epoch, the incidents are made to cluster round the representative men, and the memorable events that embody their central ideas. Nor is the history a mere chronicle of political and international progress; but the undercurrent of social life is carefully traced, and happily illustrated. There is added an interesting sketch of colonial history, including that of our Indian Empire; and here the constant reference to natural features, as a condition of the success of colonisation, tends both to relieve the narrative and to deepen its force.

There is no need to refer particularly to the qualities of Dr Collier's style. It is full of sprightliness

and vigour. And although older heads and more matured taste may object to an occasional exuberance, there can be no doubt of its appropriateness for, and popularity with, younger readers.

We should add, that any tendency to diffuseness from the general plan of the work is fully counteracted by the excellent chronological tables appended to each book. Perhaps an alphabetical index is all that it wants to render it as available for consultation, as it is certainly delightful for systematic perusal.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Part II. Amble-Averruncation. April. London: Longmans. 1864.

Having in last number explained the general features of this important work, we proceed to fulfil our promise that we should in future numbers lay before our readers some of its chief novelties in words, etymologies, or explanations. Comparing Latham with Richardson, we find the following words, amongst many others, in the former and not in the latter. We add to each, one of the authorities sanctioning its usage:—

Ammit, *s.*, Amice (undermost part of a priest's habit). *Oldham.*

Amolition, *s.*, removal. *Bishop Seth Ward.*

Amorphy, *s.*, departure from established form. *Swift.*

Amuck, *adv.*, wildly. *Carlyle.*

Amour, *s.*, love affair. *Addison.*

Ana, *s.*, termination of, *e.g.*, Scalliger-*ana*. *West, Tennyson.*

Anamorphism, *s.*, repetition of the same form. *Latham.*

Antelucan, *adj.*, before the dawn. *Bishop Hall.*

Antenatal, *adj.*, before birth. *Shelley.*

Antinatural, *adj.*, opposed to the natural view. *Martinus Scriblerus.*

Aquilon, *s.*, north wind. *Shakespeare.*

Arblast, *s.*, crossbow. *Scott.*

Asperly, *adv.*, roughly. *Sir T. Elyot.*

Asphalte, *s.*, variety of bitumen. *Thackeray.*

Assart, *v. a.*, disforest. *Ashmole.*

Assecle, *s.*, attendant. *Sheldon.*

Astomatus, *adj.*, mouthless. *Owen.*

Astragal, *s.*, (in architecture). *Spectator.*

Atomic, *adj.*, relating to atoms. *Whewell.*

Atred, *adj.*, black. *Whitaker.*

Atter, *v. a.*, bind to the earth. *Bethulia's Rescue.*

We should like to know on what principle Dr Latham spells *amit* with two *t*'s. He quotes no authority in which the infinitive or simple word is used. And the use of *amitteth* by Sir T. Browne, by no means implies that the first person is *amitt*, any more than *omitteth* implies a first person, *omitt*.

* Of etymological points which are noteworthy in

connection with the present part, we select the following:—

Anger [*? Lat. angor* = distress].

Anoint [*N. Fr. enoindre*; from *Lat. unguo*].

Anon [from the root of *yon*, implying distance in time], usually given as from *A. S. on*, *an* = in one (instant).

Apple (no etymology; *A. S. æpl*, *Ger. apfel*).

Apply (no etymology; *Lat. applicare*).

Apron [*Fr. naperon*]. Preferable to Skinner's *A. S. aforan*, and Minshew's *afore one*.

Arch, *adj.*, roguish [*A. S. earg* = bad]. Richardson gives it as a derivative meaning of *arch* (*ἀρχος* = chief).

Archer (no etymology; surely a reference should have been made to *arc*).

Armlet (no etymology; should not *let* have been referred to as a diminutive suffix? Then it is given as = bracelet; but they are not identical, the former being worn on the arm; the latter on the wrist).

Arta, *s.*, earnest money [*Lat. arrha*]. The Scotch *arle*, *arles*, *earlis*, are from the same root.

Array [*Fr. array*; from *L. Lat. arrata*, from German *reihe* = row]. More satisfactory than Richardson's derivation of it from *A. S. wigan*, to cloak, cover: whence he explains it to mean primarily to deck, dress, set in order.

As [*A. S. eall* = all, *swa* = so. In this word the import turns on the latter element, *i.e.*, *so*. This implies likeness, both when standing alone, and in composition; as in *such* (= *so*, *lie*).

Ask [*A. S. æcian*]. Shewing that the Scotch *ax* is quite as near the original as the English *ask*.

Aslake (no etymology; though there can be no doubt of its derivation from *A. S. a slacian*).

Attaint, in law [*Lat. tango* = touch], whence also *attainder*. Both words are usually derived from *tingo* = dye, whence *taint* = stain, and the rare *attaint* = overclouded, used by Spenser. In this distinction of the two roots, Dr Latham is supported by Mr Wedgewood. All the *legal* words are derived from *tango*, because, says the latter, "the judicial accusation is compared to the pursuit of an enemy."

One of the most valuable features of the present work, consists in the full and original explanations, part philological, part grammatical, appended to some of the words. In the present part, we have such notes on the words *Antipodes*, *Any*, *Apostrophe*, *Apriori*, *Article*, *As*, *Asperate* and *Aspirate*, *Atheling*, *Autarchy*, *Auxiliary*, and *Aver*.

Geography of the British Empire. By WILLIAM LAWSON. Part I. Mathematics and Physical Geography. Part II. The British Islands. Part III. The Colonies. Second Edition, Revised. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd. 1864.

We are glad to see this new edition of Mr Lawson's *British Geography*; for the ungainly appear-

ance of the first edition was a serious hindrance to the right appreciation of its excellent matter. In spite of the homely plainness—we had almost said the commonplace character—of its style, it is out of sight the best book on the subject that we possess. It is as far as possible removed from being a dry book; and of very few geographies can this be said with truth. It nowhere degenerates into a catalogue of names, and in connection with every physical fact, and with every topographical detail, there is connected something to make it both interesting and memorable. Mr Lawson lays great stress on physical features; and rightly, for on this depends chiefly the scientific value of geography, as well as its educational importance. The volume contains a vast amount of interesting and accurate information, well arranged and happily illustrated. The first part has also been issued as a separate volume, and will prove exceedingly useful.

Elements of Modern Geography: for the use of Junior Classes. By the Rev. ALEXANDER MACKAY, A.M., F.R.G.S., Author of "A Manual of Modern Geography." Edinburgh: Blackwoods. 1864.

Mr Mackay has acted very wisely in publishing this elementary treatise. His "Manual of Modern Geography," published about three years ago, is an admirable and comprehensive work; but, as we pointed out when reviewing it then, it contained far too much for ordinary school purposes, and only required an index to make it invaluable as a systematic (not a merely alphabetical) gazetteer of the world. As the index which we desiderated has since been supplied, the volume has been rendered fully available for the latter purpose, and we know no similar work to which either the teacher, or the general student, can more easily and confidently refer. That work, the author tells us, was designed "especially for teachers;" the present volume "has been expressly prepared to suit the wants and capacities of the pupil." For this end it is admirably adapted; not only, however, "for Junior Classes," but, unless when the pupils bestow their exclusive attention on geography, even for the most advanced classes in ordinary schools.

Nearly all the points to which we took exception in noticing the "Manual" having been either corrected, or dropped out in the course of the epitomising, we are glad to be able very strongly to commend the "Elements" to the attention of teachers, as one of the best, one of the very few good, school books of geography in existence. We can recommend it on account of its fulness, yet within manageable limits. Its information is the most recent. We have tested its accuracy, by comparison with independent sources of information within our reach, and that in connection with our own country, with Denmark, and the United States: we have in no case

found any serious discrepancy. To accuracy and freshness of matter, it adds terseness of style, and clearness of arrangement, the latter much aided by varieties of typography.

The general arrangement of the work is the same as that of the "Manual." The chapters on Mathematical and Physical Geography (in which, however, the tides are still ignored) are compressed into twenty pages, the remaining 270 being devoted to mathematical geography. The prominent features of the book, we cannot admit that all of them are peculiar to this work exclusively, are: (1.) Relative position of countries; (2.) Comparison of "Area and Population" with the British Isles; (3.) Cities and towns arranged according to river-systems; (4.) Arrangement of mountains and lakes, in connection with river-basins; (5.) Special sections on climate, minerals, botany, ethnography, &c.; (6.) Rules for pronunciation of geographical names.

With the "Elements" in the hands of the pupils, and the "Manual" in the teachers', nothing should be wanting to make geography a really interesting and profitable study.

The Principles of Book-keeping by Double Entry. In a Series of Easy and Progressive Exercises. By HENRY MANLY, Principal Writting Master and Teacher of Book-keeping in the City of London Schools. London: Stanford. 1864.

This is a very excellent work on book-keeping; the arrangement is good, and the exercises, which commence with the simplest forms of accounts, and proceed gradually to the more difficult and complex, are short and judiciously chosen. The method here adopted (not often used in book-keeping) is the only satisfactory one, viz., giving the rule, illustrating it by examples, and then giving exercises to be worked according to the directions. The questions at the end of each section will be found useful in testing the knowledge of the pupil, and will prepare him for the examination papers at the end of the book. The giving of these papers we consider of great importance. They are such as are prepared by public boards of examiners, and the time allowed for each paper being stated, the knowledge and facility of the learner in constructing and closing accounts can be easily ascertained. To young men going forward for examination this book will be of great service, and to all such, and teachers generally, we confidently recommend it.

Class Book of Geography: Physical and Descriptive. By ROBERT ANDERSON. London: T. Nelson & Sons. 1864.

This latest edition of one of our most popular geographies has been so greatly enlarged and otherwise improved as to entitle it to the new designation quoted above. The most considerable addition is

that of the chapter on physical geography. In previous editions, this subject was summarily disposed of in fifteen pages. It now extends to fifty; and while it is thus treated with sufficient fulness, it is also discussed in an interesting and practical manner.

Our readers hardly need to be informed that the special features of the descriptive geography are its constant reference, on matters of position, size, and distance, in connection with all places on the globe, to the British Isles as a uniform standard, or to places lying in the line of their longitude, due north and south. Thus Greece is described as "same latitude as the south of Spain," one of the countries in the "line" referred to; Athens is said to be "1480 miles south-east of London;" while the whole country is "two-thirds the size of Scotland." This certainly is more memorable and conveys more definite ideas than vague latitudes and longitudes, &c, which to young minds are but "airy nothings" to which these practical comparisons give an appreciable "local habitation."

Norwich School Sermons. By AUGUSTUS JESSOP, M.A. London: Bell and Daldy. 1864.

School Sermons, Preached at Leamington College. By EDWARD ST JOHN PARRY, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

We have pleasure in commending these volumes to our readers, as good examples of what preaching to school-boys should attempt, as well as of what it may produce. The sermons are short (an important quality with young people), earnest, and forcible; practical rather than doctrinal, plain rather than fine or eloquent. Mr Jessop excels in a certain picturesqueness of style, and in literary facility, which, however, sometimes betrays him into slipshod. Mr Parry evidently knows boy-nature well, and makes excellent use of his knowledge, both in his illustrations and in his exhortations.

Sight-Singing Made Easy; a Manual for Choirs, Schools, and Choral Societies. Intended to embrace the Advantages of the "Tonic Sol-Fa System" with the ordinary Musical Notation. London: Lambert and Co.

Never was a "royal road" to the acquirement of singing music at sight more eagerly sought after than at the present time—every known highway and byway being keenly scrutinized and re-explored, while many new and somewhat doubtful routes have been projected and adventured on. Amid all this searching and deviation, it is remarkable that the good old tonic system of solmisation still retains its high place, and that after each erratic flight in search of some new and easy path, it is again and again returned to, as really the shortest and surest road to the end desired.

In the Manual before us, we have one of these returnings, it being "intended to embrace the advantages of the 'Tonic Sol-fa System' with the ordinary notation." Although this manual does not pretend to any great originality either in plan, principle, matter, or arrangement, and though we might take exception to one or two points of detail, yet, notwithstanding, we believe that in the hands of a judicious and skilful teacher, it will be found highly useful and effective. We heartily commend it to the attention of all engaged in this department of education.

Sixty Melodies for Youth, for Two, Three, and Four Voices. Composed by SILCHER. Adapted to English Words, for the Use of Schools and Singing-Classes. By FRANCIS L. SOPER. London: J. Alfred Novello. (Ninth edition)

If "good wine needs no bush," as little does this work require any commendation of ours. The fact that it has reached a ninth edition testifies to its acceptability as a class-book among teachers of singing; and its value is now greatly enhanced by the addition of twelve melodies from the pen of the gifted composer, and without additional charge. We wish it every success, feeling assured that wherever it is used, a pure and correct taste in melody will be fostered and established.

Nelson's Wall Maps. Lands of the Bible. London T. Nelson and Sons. 1864.

This admirable map is one of the best, and we doubt not will prove one of the most useful, maps in the series to which it is the most recent addition. The upper half of the sheet, extending across its whole breadth, presents a general view of Bible lands, from Sicily in the west, to the Caspian Sea and Persian Gulf in the east, embracing Moesia in the north, and Libya in the south. It is divided, according to the characteristic plan of the series, into squares of 100 miles, of which there are twenty from east to west, and ten from north to south. The learner is thus enabled, by simply counting the squares between any two points, at once to obtain a precise and intelligent idea of distances. This, in connection, for example, with the travels of St Paul, is a point of great practical importance.

The lower half of the sheet is divided into two squares, one of 400 miles, divided into squares of 100 miles, shewing the journeys of the Israelites; the other, a square of five miles, subdivided into squares of one mile, consisting of a detailed plan of Jerusalem and its environs. In the lower part of the latter square there is exhibited a very useful section of country, in the line crossing the Valley of Hinnom, Mount Zion, Mount Moriah, the Valley of Jehoshaphat, and the Mount of Olives, in which the elevations and depressions of the surface are very

clearly shewn. No one can stand before the map for ten minutes without obtaining more definite views than he had before of the topography of these lands, the relative position and distances of places, and the physical contour of the country.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Chronological Outlines of English History. By J. C. CURTIS, B.A. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1864.

Decidedly the best and fullest summary of English history that we have seen.

Address to Parents by the Scottish Central Association of Schoolmasters. Stirling. 1863.

An excellent and timely address on the all-important subjects (especially in these Revised-Code times) of regularity of attendance, and preparation of lessons at home.

The Teacher: His Books, and how to read them. A Lecture. By W. H. GEORGE, B.A., F.G.S. London: Sunday School Union.

Contains very useful practical hints on reading and observation, in connection with the equipment of the Sunday-school teacher.

Poems. By G. WASHINGTON MOON, F.R.S.L. London: Hatchard & Co. 1864.

Mr Moon's poems are not first-rate. We much preferred Mr Moon as a controversialist on "The Queen's English," to Mr Moon as the satellite of Tupper.

Chemistry. By the late Professor GEORGE WILSON. London: W. & R. Chambers. 1864.

A new edition of this admirable work, revised and enlarged by Dr Stevenson Macadam, a distinguished pupil of Professor Wilson's, and containing a chapter on Gerhardt's new notation.

The Study of the Physical Sciences. An Essay. By GEORGE D. WOOD. London: Calder. 1864.

Brings together and illustrates many wise sayings of wise men on the physical sciences, "their value in education, and the part they play in advancing the civilisation of mankind." The recommendations of the Public Schools Commissioners give new interest to this subject at present.

Milton's Comus, L'Allegro, and Il Penseroso, with numerous Illustrations, Notes, &c. By the Rev. JOHN HUNTER, M.A. London: Longman. 1864.

The notes are very abundant and very full. The remarks of various authors on these poems are prefixed. There is no paraphrase. The work is primarily designed for use in training colleges.

The Steady Aim. By W. H. DAVENPORT ADAMS. Illustrated. London: Hogg & Sons. 1863.

A book of "examples and encouragements," from modern biography, embracing inventors, discoverers, sailors, soldiers, artists, authors, and men of science. Contains much interesting matter, but spasmodic in style.

The Standard Writing-Exercise Books, for School and Home By J. S. LAWRIE. Books I. and II. (in one), and Book III. London: Murby. 1864.

We have failed to discover anything that is good in the plan of these books; we have not failed to find much that is bad in their execution. The models are all in "script," and, as models, are therefore useless, or worse. The exercises in Books I. and II. are too miscellaneous; and the rate of progress is much too rapid. They are, however, intended to be "supplementary to the usual 'Copy Books.'"

Day-Dreams of a Schoolmaster. By D'ARCY W. THOMPSON. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas. 1864.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

1. In *Æn.* iii. 478, "Pelago" is surely an ablative of the instrument or means by which an act is effected. See Donaldson, *Lat. Gram.* § 163 (a).

In *Æn.* iii. 586, "Obscuro celo" is the ablative of circumstance, or ablative absolute, and is equivalent to "quum cælum esset obscurum." Compare Donaldson, *Lat. Gram.* § 164 (a). J. DAVIES.

5. Analysis of passage from Thomson's *Winter* :—

Connective.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial.
A.	The mountain billows swelled in dreadful tumult, surge above surge, to the clouds. (billows)	burst	into chaos (complement)	(1) meantime (time) (2) with tremendous roar (manner)
B. And		drive	anchored navies	(1) from the stations (place) (2) wild (manner) across the howling waste of mighty waters (place).
b. (adv) As	the winds	(drive)		

The difficulty lies in the phrase "surge above surge," which obviously belongs to the subject, rather than to the predicate; to the *swelling*, rather than to the *bursting*.

DELTA.

6. The *a* in *sagio* is in some dictionaries marked long; and doubtless *adgus* and *adgio*, or *sāgio*, are connected with one another.

SPES.

7. *Yare* and *Yarely* are from A.S. *gearu*, ready, whence *gearwa*, clothing, Eng. *gear*, "whatever is required to set a thing in action."—Wedgewood; who derives *garb* from the same root, and compares with it "O.H.G. *garawi*, ornament, preparation," &c.

Q.

Connective.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial.
8. A.	A friend	has said	(2a)	
1a (at.) (b. s.)	who	is near	to me (complement)	now (time)
(B)	(I	believe)		
2a (s.) that	prudence	can be used		(1) never (time) (2) in the cause of vice (place).

The case of parenthetical principal clauses (like "I believe") has not received sufficient notice in books on analysis. It is really an independent clause; and while 1a is attributive to A., it is also a substantive clause, the object of B.

DELTA.

QUERIES.

10. Can a rule be laid down which will universally distinguish indirect objects from extensions of place or cause? *E.g.*,

"He collected his materials *from all possible sources*."

"The moon threw her silvery light *upon the trees*."

C. H. P.

11. De Quincey gives a minute account of a marvellous heroine whom he calls the "Military Nun." He asserts that the story is strictly true, but his assertion may possibly be part of his fiction. Can any of your Spanish scholars inform me whether Kate is a fabrication or a reality, and if a reality, where a full account of her is to be found?

J. DN.

12. BABRIUS AND ALCIATI'S EPIGRAM.—In the first part of the *Fables* of Babrius, Fable 84 is entitled, *καὶδὲν ἰσθὶον σπλάγχνα* "The Boy eating the entrails," and a very amusing fable it is. The prose fables which Teubner has republished in the *Leipae Classics*, contain a version of this particular fable, which looks as if it were, like its fellow, "transposed" from the Babrian original. One prose collection was published in A.D. 1609; and that of the monk, Planudes, in the 14th century. In a collection of epigrams (*Delitiae delitiarum*, collected by Ab. Wright, B.A., and published at Oxford in 1687), I have come upon one, which, except so far as its "heading and title," looks like a plagiarism from Babrius or his prose adapters. It is by Andrew Alciati, a great lawyer and scholar of Milan (A.D.

1518–1550), of whom see Hallam, *Lit. Hist.* i. 417.

It runs thus—

Malè paria malè dilabuntur.

*Milvus edax, nimia quem nausea torserat esca,
'Hei mihi, mater,' ait, 'viscera ab ore fluunt.'
Illa autem 'Quid fles? cur hæc tua viscera credas,
Qui raptò vivens sola aliena vomis?'*

Which may be rendered—

A greedy kite, by sickness overts'en,
Did to his mother sadly thus complain—
'Alas, good mother, all is o'er with me!
This sickness turns my inside out, d'ye see!
'Weep not,' said she, 'nor what goes out bemoan:
Who feeds on plunder, can't disgorge his own.'

Comparing this with the Babrian fable,—which ends in the English version as follows—

'My wretched fate is present death, no doubt;
For, mother, see, my bowels gushing out.'
'Don't try to keep it down,' the dame replied;
'Tis not your own, dear, but the bull's inside;—

I am curious as to the question, from which version did Alciati copy? Perhaps some readers will compare the epigram with the fable, and throw light on the question?

J. DAVIES.

13. SCRIPTURE PROVERBS TAKEN FROM THE CLASSICS.—Erasmus, in his preface to his *Adagia* (p. 6, fol.) seems to connect the saying of Pittacus *κατὰ σαυρόν ἔλα*, with our Lord's similitude of the Jews (who were alike dissatisfied with the stern teaching of the Baptist, and His own gentle disci-

pline), to children sitting in the market-places, and crying to each other, "We have piped unto you, and ye have not danced; we have mourned unto you, and ye have not lamented" (Matt. xi. 17; Luke vii. 32). And he gives other instances of apparently ancient proverbs adopted and used by our Saviour. The proverb of Pittacus is to be found in an epigram of Callimachus (Ep. i.), and inculcates "choosing one's equal," or perhaps "addicting oneself to the teacher who best suits one's particular tone and bent of mind." But I doubt whether this is more than a fancied parallel, and shall be glad if any reader will do battle for Erasmus, and convince me.

There is more about the proverb of Pittacus in Adagia, Chil. i. Cent. viii. ad. i. p. 805, fol.

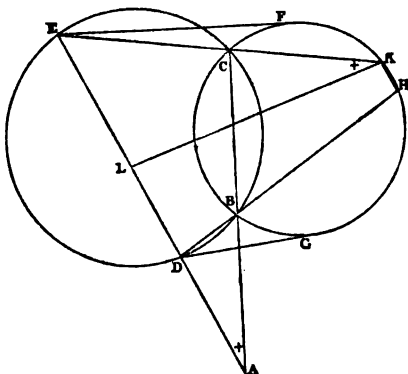
J. DAVIES.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

1. If two circles cut one another, and from any point in the common chord produced, there be drawn a line cutting one circle, the distances of the points of intersection from that point will be to one another as the squares of the tangents drawn to the other circle from these points.

Solution by Cycloid.—Let BHC, CEB, be two circles, having the common chord produced to A.



From A draw AE, cutting the circle CEB, in D and E, and from D and E draw the lines DG and EF, touching the other circle BHC in the points G and F. Then

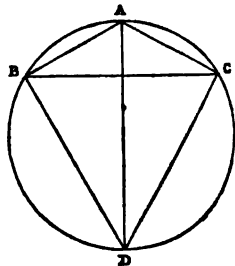
$$AD : AE :: DG^2 : EF^2.$$

Through the points D and B draw the line DBH, and through the points E and C draw ECK; join HK, and at the point K, in the straight line EK, make the angle EKL = the angle EAC. The triangle EKL is therefore equiangular to the triangle EAC. Because the rectangle AE.AD = AC.AB (Euc. III., 36 cor.) AE : AC :: AB : AD. Therefore (Euc. VI. 6) the triangles ABD and AEC are equiangular, and the angle ADB = the angle ACE. It can also be easily shewn that HD = KL. From similar triangles

AC : AE :: AC : DB : KL : KE, or AC : AE :: HD : KE (1) Then AE : EC :: HD : DB : KE : EC (2) Also, AC : CE :: AD : DB, \therefore AC : DB = AD : EC (3) and (Euc. III. 36) HD : DB = DG² (4), and KE : EC = EF² (5) Wherefore, by substitution of (3) (4) and (5) in (2) we have AD : EC : AE : EC :: DG² : EF², \therefore AD : AE :: DG² : EF².

2. Solution by M.—

Let AB be the given chord: take AC = AB, join BC; it is the chord required. Bisect $\angle BAC$ by AD. AD bisects BC at right angles, and passes through the centre. \therefore AD is a diameter.



$$DC^2 = AD^2 - AC^2 \text{ (III. 81, and I. 47)}$$

$$= 118^2 - 15^2 = 12544, \therefore DC = 112 \text{ — also BD.}$$

$$AD \cdot BC = 2 \text{ area of } ABCD = 2 DC \cdot AC = 3360$$

$$\text{i.e., } 113 \cdot BC = 3360$$

$$\therefore BC = 29.784 \text{ \&c.}$$

Solved also by *Cycloid*, *S.*, and *Cancer*.

3. *Solution by S.*—Put a = the annuity, R = the amount of £1 for one year, n = the number of years, and v = the present value, we have by a well-known formula,

$$v = \frac{a}{R^n} \cdot \frac{R^n - 1}{R - 1} = 550 = \frac{50}{R^n} \cdot \frac{R^n - 1}{R - 1}$$

By reducing this, we obtain $12R^{23} - 11R^{22} = 1$, and, by means of a table of logarithms, we find, after a few trials, $R = 1.068$. The rate per cent. is 6½.

QUERIES.

4. (Solution requested by P.)

$$12 \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}}} - 12 \right\} = 5 \left\{ \frac{1}{12} - \sqrt{\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}}} \right\}$$

$$\left\{ 1 + \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} \left\{ 8x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 124 \sqrt{x^2 + x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right\}$$

$$= 125 - x^2 - y^2$$

5. (Solution requested by M.)—AOB is a triangle, right angled at O. AD bisects $\angle A$; Prove $AC^2 : AD^2 :: BC : 2 BD$.

6. (Solution requested by A. W.)—If a legacy of £1200, less 5 per cent. duty, is to be paid to a person whose age is 17, when he becomes 24 years old, what sum paid to him now would be equivalent to it?—interest being at 5 per cent.

Open Council.

[No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

QUESTION PROPOSED.—HAS GOVERNMENT BROKEN FAITH WITH THE CERTIFICATED SCHOOLMASTERS?

A.B.—A disregard of contracts entered into, is certainly not a habitual failing on the part of the Government of this country; yet, I think that the present liberal Government has been led by the New Code of the Vice-President of the Committee of Council, to treat certificated schoolmasters in a most illiberal and unjust manner.

The Minutes of the Committee of Council as they stand at present, and as they are explained by the officials in Downing Street, mean a great deal or nothing just as it suits the wishes of the Vice-President. No one, therefore, will act upon a Minute until the official explanation of it has been published. And even then, it will be received with caution, for he knows (by sad experience) how easy a matter it is, for such expert interpreters,—by means of "Instructions to Inspectors," or by "Supplementary Rules,"—to do away with the Minute altogether.

The Minutes of 1846, however, were framed upon a different principle, for they conveyed the same ideas to all minds, and were acted upon accordingly for sixteen years. But when Mr Lowe was appointed to see these *properly administered*, he did not understand the Minutes, as they had been understood from the first,—and so framed others for his own guidance. Among those he misunderstood are the following:—

"Their Lordships will grant, in aid of the stipend of every schoolmaster, and schoolmistress, appointed to a school under their inspection, annual sums"—(as per table).

"These grants will be made by Post-Office orders payable to the teachers *themselves*. They belong *exclusively to the teachers*, not to the general funds of the school. Their Lordships cannot sanction corresponding reductions in the previous salaries of the teachers, even though more than sufficient to fulfil the conditions of the particular grant." (The italics are mine.)

These statements are so clear and explicit, that one wonders how they could be misunderstood. But Mr Lowe (by the new method of interpretation), arrived at the conclusion, that grants need *not* be made, and that, if made, they do not belong *exclusively to the teachers*. And this too in the face of sixteen years' practice, after hundreds of teachers had entered the profession, on the belief that these Minutes meant what they said.

How this was managed is well known. We had

not even an open trial (the right of every Englishman, accorded even to the greatest criminal), but we were treated in a most arbitrary and cruel manner, at the whim of a mere official. If the subject had been *openly* laid before Parliament, and they had come to the conclusion, that the expenditure of such money was unnecessary, the blow would not have been so severely felt.

Under the circumstances, therefore, I think we can say with justice, that Government has broken faith with the Certificated Schoolmasters.

C.D.—The present question refers not to breach of express agreement, but to breach of faith, *i. e.*, of tacit agreement. A breach of faith is a breach of those conditions which are left unexpressed, simply because they are involved in everything else, and because without them the proposal could neither be seriously made nor accepted.

Mr Lowe induced the *élite* of the youth attending popular schools to become teachers, by the promise that the Government would give so much, and guarantee twice as much more as a minimum salary from local parties. He did not say that as soon as his trap was full he would withdraw the baits and leave them in the lurch, captured and hungry. But he has done so, and now justifies himself by saying he never promised not to do it. None of the entrapped men would have listened to his proposals, unless in the faith that such a demand implied his *permanent* observance of the express conditions and guarantees. If it is good faith, for example, for a buyer simply to close a transaction, after receipt of the goods, and before the payment of the money, then the Government has acted in good faith, *but if not, not*. Both transactions may be, by some men, defended on the ground of *economy*; and rightly, if economy be the refusal to pay for what we have received. But is it not rather out of place for the British Government to inaugurate that style of doing business? and more especially for that department of it which exists to superintend the training of the youth in learning virtue?

The calculations which led to the withdrawal of the certificate grants have been shewn to be false. When it was proved that, instead of twenty-five per cent., as Mr Lowe had affirmed, at least sixty-five per cent. of the pupils of inspected schools were well

taught, he admitted the fact, but said *it did not matter*. Several members of the Royal Commission have expressed to me, what all of them feel, intense disgust at the base uses to which their Report has been turned. But when foiled in the House of Commons Mr Lowe vaunted that he had still gained his real object, which was the absolute subjection of the teacher. Happy is the teacher who knows nothing of the conscience of a Committee. Who calls this good faith!

Sir John Pakington exposed the unfairness of the Code most truly and felicitously. It was a case, he said, in which one party forced on a dissolution of partnership, leaving all the liabilities of the firm with the remaining partner. Good faith, again! And now, in his private instructions, he shews how all this loss may be thrown on the teacher, and invites managers who at present pay them, on an average, over £90, to consider them *duty* paid with £60. Good faith, again!

Education at Home.

COMMITTEE OF THE PRIVY COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

I.—Summary of Results of Examination of Candidates for Admission into Normal Schools. Christmas 1863.

DENOMINATION.	Presented for Examination			Passed					Failed		
	Males	Females	Total	Males		Females		Total	Males	Females	Total
				1st Class	2d Class	1st Class	2d Class				
Church of England . . .	427	*604	1121	197	195	192	330	904	35	179	214
Scotch Episcopal Church .	8	10	18	2	4	—	4	10	2	6	8
British and Wesleyan . .	142	134	276	31	87	45	65	229	24	23	47
Roman Catholic . . .	23	47	70	1	10	11	29	51	12	7	19
Church of Scotland . . .	92	65	157	36	48	29	20	133	8	16	24
Scotch Free Church . . .	97	92	189	31	49	55	19	155	15	17	32
Total . . .	789	1042	1831	298	393	333	458	1482	96	245	344

* One Candidate died after commencing her examination.

II.—Summary of Results of Examination of Students in Normal Schools, at Christmas 1863. ENGLAND AND WALES.—MALES.

NORMAL SCHOOL.	SECOND YEAR.						FIRST YEAR.					
	Number presented for examination	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed	Number presented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed.
Bangor	8			3	4	1	30	3	6	15	2	4
Battersea	36	11	22	3			39	7	27	3		2
Borough Road	40	8	16	16			56	16	24	12	1	3
Carmarthen	5			1	1		38		5	26	4	2
Carnarvon	12	1	4	3	3	1	18	1	3	9	1	4
Chelsea	53	7	21	23	2		50	4	27	19		
Cheltenham	40	4	22	14			57	3	37	16	1	
Chester	18	3	12	3			23	6	10	7		
Chichester	5		7	3	1		23		6	15		2
Culham	26	1	7	13	3	2	*50		19	25	2	3
Durham	25	1	11	13			22	2	10	7	1	2
Exeter	20		6	12	3		29	1	11	12	2	3
Hammersmith	34		9	21	3		28	4	7	12	3	2
Highbury	27	4	13	10			55	9	31	14		1
Peterborough	22	1	8	11	2		21		8	12		1
Salisbury	33	2	7	21	3		39	1	17	17	2	1
Westminster	31	4	17	10			39	12	19	7		
Winchester	8		5	3			30	1	11	16		2
York	29		11	18			35	3	19	12		1
Total	470	47	191	202	25	5	682	73	297	255	20	33

* One Student was dismissed from the College, while the Examination was proceeding, for breach of discipline.

FEMALES.

NORMAL SCHOOL.	SECOND YEAR.						FIRST YEAR.					
	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed.	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed.
Bishop's Stortford	20	8	21	1			24	9	15			
Brighton	20	1	10	9			28		20	6		
Bristol	38	5	24	8		1	37	5	29	3		
Cheltenham	22	4	15	3			35	12	23	1		
Derby	20	4	7	9			24	3	18	2		
Durham	20	6	14				27	11	15	1	1	
Home & Colonial	49	15	83	1			71	41	29	1		
Lincoln	21	9	12				18	7	10	1		
Liverpool	27	14	19	1			42	5	26	11		
Nottingham	20	4	18	3			21	10	11			
Ripon	18	3	10	3			42	8	16	23		
St Leonard's	11	1	2	6	1	1	*22	1	9	9	2	
Salisbury	25	7	21	7			30	5	24	1		
Stockwell	23	6	17	3			71	9	48	11		
Truro	10	1	7	2			15		6	7	1	1
Warrington	49	9	35	5			49	18	31			
Westminster	18	3	12	3			36	3	25	8		
Whitlands	51	10	35				55	23	32			
Total	485	118	300	64	1	2	646	165	387	85	4	1

* Examination of one candidate cancelled, who was not duly qualified to attend.

SCOTLAND—MALES.

NORMAL SCHOOL.	SECOND YEAR.						FIRST YEAR.					
	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed.	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Failed.
Edinburgh (Episcopal Church)	2		1	1			14	3	7	4		9
Edinburgh (Church of Scotland)	34	2	12	16	2		51	8	18	17	2	2
Edinburgh (Free Church)	44	5	11	18	8		60	6	16	20	2	2
Glasgow (Church of Scotland)	39	2	16	17	1	2	49	7	16	19	2	2
Glasgow (Free Church)	38	4	14	14	6		50	4	18	19	5	4
Total	157	13	54	66	17	2	224	27	75	79	9	17

FEMALES.

NORMAL SCHOOL.	SECOND YEAR.					FIRST YEAR.				
	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.	Number pre-sented for Examination.	1st Division.	2d Division.	3d Division.	4th Division.
Edinburgh (Church of Scotland)	41	12	26	3		68	14	37	14	1
Edinburgh (Free Church)	39	12	22	5		59	15	31	4	
Glasgow (Church of Scotland)	28	6	13	8	1	56	10	31	13	1
Glasgow (Free Church)	20	12	14	3		49	11	23	15	
Total	137	42	75	19	1	223	50	122	46	2

REPORTS OF SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

In the House of Commons, on the 12th April, Lord R. Cecil moved—"That in the opinion of this House the mutilation of the reports of Her Majesty's inspectors of schools, and the exclusion from them of

statements and opinions adverse to the educational views entertained by the Committee of Council, while matter favourable to them is admitted, are a violation of the understanding under which the appointment of the inspectors was originally sanctioned, and

tend entirely to destroy the value of their reports." The noble Lord contended that the minute of January 1840 was the contract between the Government and the House in this matter, and he wished to call attention to its terms. It says—"The reports of the inspectors are intended to convey such further information respecting the state of elementary education in Great Britain as to enable Parliament to determine in what mode the sums voted for the education of the poorer classes can be most usefully applied. Your reports will be made to the committee, but it is intended that they shall be laid before both Houses of Parliament. The committee doubt not that you are duly impressed with the weight of the responsibility resting upon you, and they repose full confidence in the judgment and discretion with which your duty will be performed." Now, the House of Commons, knowing that that was the understanding on which the inspectors were appointed, and receiving their reports from year to year, became accustomed to look to those reports for a true account of the state of education as it actually existed, and on the faith of them made the enormous grants for which the Minister applied on behalf of the Educational Department. The Vice-President claimed the right of excluding from these reports all matters of opinion. But he quoted from the report of 1862 to prove that Mr Lowe tolerated the expression of opinion when it supported his own views. He had printed Mr Stewart's argument against Mr Walter's motion for the endowment of schools with uncertificated teachers. But he had excluded reports containing opposite views.

Mr Walter seconded the motion. He referred to the fact that two of the reports in last blue-book—those of Mr Norris and Mr Stewart—were elaborate arguments against the uncertificated schoolmasters. He did not complain of this. On the contrary, the inspectors had a right to make those statements; but when he had reason to know that in a report of a different character, by a gentleman holding different opinions, a report which speaks of a particular school as being the very bean-ideal of what an infant school ought to be, of it being the best school in the inspector's district,—when he found the whole passage containing that statement struck out because the inspector thought it right to state that the school was conducted by an uncertificated mistress, he said that it was not fair, because it deprived him, and any gentleman holding the same views, of the opportunity of bringing their case before the House in a proper manner.

Mr Lowe denied that he had mutilated, garbled, or suppressed the reports of the inspectors. The reports required by the minute of 1840 were designed to enable the House to organise a system, and these reports were made to Parliament. Since the system had been organised, the character of the reports had changed. These reports were not now made to the House of Commons, but to the Privy Council Office;

and in cases where they were not made in accordance with the instructions laid down for their guidance, they were sent back to the inspector, who was thus made to revise his own work. If, however, the House wished to have the reports of all the inspectors laid before it precisely as they were written, he had no objection; but the expense would be perhaps more considerable than the House would care to sanction. He characterised Lord R. Cecil's statements as "utterly untrue," and his arguments as "absurd."

Mr W. Forster supported the motion. After some observations from Mr Liddel and Sir G. Grey, the House divided, when the numbers were—For the motion, 101; against it, 93—majority against the Government, 8.

The Ministry were defeated, by 101 to 93, on a motion of Lord Robert Cecil's, for preventing Mr Lowe from allowing the Reports of Inspectors of Schools to be "mutilated." Mr Lowe urged that they were not mutilated, but that he only cut out matter which had no business there. The difference may strike the acute.—*Punch*.

RESIGNATION OF MR. LOWE.

On the evening of the 18th, Mr Lowe intimated that, in consequence of the above vote, he had sent in his resignation. He repeated his most solemn assertion that he had never altered, cut out, or marked any passage in the reports of the inspectors of schools. He explained that the marked papers which he understood had been circulated in the House, and no doubt intended to bear out the statement of the noble Lord, were documents marked by a clerk in the office antecedent to the month of February 1862. Up to this time he had not been aware that it was the practice of the office that the clerk in question should mark passages in the inspectors' reports with the view of bringing those passages under the notice of his superiors. The right hon. gentleman further explained, that the reason why he was not personally aware of this practice was that, owing to his infirmity of sight, he was unable to read the manuscript, and the reports of the inspectors were read to him by a clerk or his private secretary.

Lord R. Cecil, Mr Walter, and Mr W. E. Foster disclaimed any personal hostility to the right hon. gentleman.

SELECT COMMITTEE.

Lord Palmerston, after expressing his regret at the loss of so able and conscientious a public servant, gave notice that he should move for a Select Committee, which was agreed to by the House on the 21st inst.

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.

Mr Adderley has given notice that, on Tuesday the 10th of May, he will move, "That this House, having considered the minute of council of March 11. on endowed schools, is of opinion that it does not meet the objections made to the minute of May 19. 1863."

A form of petition against the revised minute has been agreed upon, and is in course of adoption.

The following statement of reasons against the revised minute of March 11 has also been issued:—

1. Because the minute in question makes no distinction between local endowments and grants from the State funds, but, in fact, places to the credit of the State money bequeathed by private individuals for a particular purpose.

2. Because it attempts to draw a distinction between small rural schools and schools in towns and other places where it is difficult to obtain subscriptions, inasmuch as in many densely-populated districts few persons of wealth are to be found.

3. Because it limits the amount to be obtained by the grant under the Revised Code, together with the endowment, to such an extent as to render it almost impossible to obtain in many parishes subscriptions to cover school expenses, even after allowing for the children's pence.

4. Because it is a departure from the principle laid down by the framers of the Revised Code, and sanctioned by parliament, of paying a school according to the attendance and examination of the children.

5. Because it makes no difference of limitation as to the amount from the parliamentary grants to schools containing 100 children, and those containing 50 children, which last mentioned schools can only be maintained in efficiency at a large cost per scholar.

6. Because, as regards other than rural schools, article 52 in the code of January 1864, that the grant shall be reduced "by the amount of any annual endowment," still remains in force, notwithstanding the dissatisfaction expressed in the House of Commons with such a principle.

7. Because even this minute, like that of May 19, 1863, acts as a discouragement to future endowments.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Oxford.—In a Convocation on the 6th ult., the Rev. Stephen Edwardes, M.A., Fellow and Bursar of Merton College, the Senior Proctor elect, and the Rev. Francis Harrison, M.A., Fellow, Dean, and Tutor of Oriel College, Junior Proctor elect, took the necessary oaths, and were admitted into office. The retiring Senior Proctor delivered, as usual, a Latin speech, recounting the most remarkable events of the past academical years; after which the following gentlemen accepted the office of Pro-Proctors for the ensuing year, viz., Rev. John Richard King, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Merton College; Rev. J. S. Treacher, M.A., of Magdalen Hall, and Chaplain of Merton College; Rev. Charles Edward Hammond, M.A., Fellow, Tutor, and Bursar of Exeter College; and the Rev. Henry Anstey, M.A., Assistant Lecturer in St Mary's Hall. In the course of the afternoon the proctors visited the hotel keepers,

livery stable keepers, and proprietors of billiard tables, for the purpose of giving them the usual warning.

EDINBURGH.—*Degrees in Science.*—The Senatus Academicus has now matured a scheme for granting degrees in science. Intending graduates must either hold the degree of M.A., or pass a preliminary examination in the usual branches of a liberal education. Before a candidate can become a Bachelor in Science he must pass two examinations, the first of which requires a general knowledge of the mathematical, physical, and natural sciences, and the second a more thorough acquaintance with certain professed sciences. If the bachelor proceed to his doctorate, he has to specialise his studies still further by limiting himself to a particular science, in which he must exhibit a profound knowledge. This scheme of new degrees is also extended to the mental sciences and to the science of language. But for these subjects the previous degree of M.A. is essential, and will correspond to the B.Sc. degree in the case of the physical and natural sciences.

General Council.—The half-yearly meeting of General Council was held on the 19th April, Principal Sir David Brewster in the chair. A deliverance of the University Court in reply to a representation from the Council was read, to the effect that the Court did not think it expedient to publish an annual statement of the University accounts and funds. It was resolved, by a large majority, to send back the representation. The report from the Committee on Endowment was approved of; that on Entrance Examinations and Extended University Sessions was read, but the consideration of it was delayed till next meeting. The report on Local Examinations was approved of.

Local Examinations.—The following are the members of the Board of Management to whom the Senatus has delegated the superintendence of the Local Examination scheme:—Principal Sir David Brewster; Professors Sellar, Kelland, Blackie, Fraser, Macdougall, Tait, Aytoun, Cosmo Innes, Wilson, Aufrecht, Donaldson, Lee, Lyon Playfair, and Christison. *Convener*, Professor Fraser; *Secretary*, Mr W. Scott Dalgleish.

The official programme has now been issued, and may be obtained by applying to the Secretary, at 9 Dick Place, Edinburgh. The following are the chief points in which the official programme differs from the provisional one given in our last number:—

I. Junior candidates (ordinary certificates). Latin: Virgil, *Æneid*, Books I. II.; French: Fénelon, *Télémaque*; German: Grimm, *Kinder und Hausmärchen*; English: Cowper, *Task*, Books I. II.; and an author not previously prescribed.

II. Senior Candidates (honorary certificates). Age, 14 to 18. Latin: Livy, Book I. or XX.; Greek: Herodotus, Book IX.; English: *Macbeth*, or

Bacon, *Essays*; History and Geography: Modern Europe, or Ancient Greece and Rome; Mathematics: Euclid, I.-IV.; Natural Philosophy: Elements of *Mechanics*, and of *Experimental Physics*; Drawing; Music.

Endowment Association.—On Monday, the 28th of March, a Preliminary Meeting was held in the Edinburgh Council Chambers, of Gentlemen favourable to the establishment of an Association for the better Endowment of the University of Edinburgh, the Lord Provost in the Chair.

Resolutions were unanimously adopted, approving of the formation of "The Association for the better Endowment of the University of Edinburgh;" the terms of Membership; and the appointment of an Acting Committee, for the purpose of enrolling Members, of defining the constitution, objects, and mode of operation of the Association, &c. &c.

The object of the Association is twofold—1st, The Foundation of Scholarships and Fellowships for the encouragement of the higher learning among the more advanced Students; and 2d, The better Endowment of existing Chairs, and the Foundation of new Professorships.

The Acting Committee have issued a Circular, in which they state that there is no reason to anticipate that any further Funds will be supplied by the Legislature for any of these purposes. It is, as they believe, understood that the Universities' Commissioners have already obtained all the money which the Government were prepared to call upon Parliament to vote for the improvement of our Universities. The only resource, therefore, which can be looked to is private liberality. Such liberality as it is now sought to direct into this channel may take the form either (1) of donations or bequests by single Benefactors of large sums sufficient for the endowment of new, or the better endowment of existing, Professorships, or for the foundation of separate Scholarships or Fellowships, in the various departments of Arts and Science, to bear the Founders' names; or (2) of contributions of varying but smaller amount for the same purposes from a large number of donors.

Every annual Subscriber of One Guinea will be a Member of the Association; and the Acting Committee propose that the amount payable by Life Members shall not exceed Ten Guineas.

The names and contributions of gentlemen proposing to become Ordinary or Life Members will be received by Mr J. Muir, the Honorary Secretary, 16 Regent Terrace, Edinburgh.

ABERDEEN.—At the half-yearly meeting of General Council, Principal Campbell in the chair, a representation to the University Court recommending the revival of the degree of Bachelor of Arts,

was unanimously approved of. A motion to represent to the Court to take into consideration whether a system of middle-class examination should not be introduced, was lost by a small majority.

ST ANDREWS.—At the half-yearly meeting of General Council, Professor Fischer in the chair, no regular business having been announced, the members entered into a miscellaneous conversation on the subject of science degrees, university endowment, and local examinations. In connection with the last of these subject, Professor Mitchell emphatically denied some statements which had appeared in the public press, attributing lukewarmness on the subject to this University. They had had the matter under their consideration for a period of three years. He could not agree with the proceedings of the Edinburgh University. He thought they ought to confine themselves to the limits appointed them by act of Parliament. Professor Fischer said that the Senatus would take good care that a march should not be stolen upon them by any other University.

THE LORD CHANCELLOR has introduced a Bill into the House of Lords for endowing the Greek Chair at Oxford.

PREPARATIONS are being made in Cambridge for the intended visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales about the 18th of June.

AT A MEETING in the Guildhall, Cambridge, presided over by the Vice-Chancellor, on the 8th ult., it was resolved to support the movement for the establishment of Public Schools for the Middle Classes.

A MEETING was held in Willis's Rooms on the 7th ult., under the presidency of H.R.H. the Duke of Cambridge, to promote the establishment of a school for officers' daughters. The Lansdown College, Bath, has been purchased for this purpose, at a cost of £4000, of which £2256 has been raised. The Duke of Cambridge was elected first President of the Institution.

APPOINTMENTS.

Rev. James Bowling Mozley, D.D., of Magdalene College, Oxford: to be Bampton Lecturer.

Rev. A. J. D. D'Orsey, D.D.: to be Lecturer on Public Reading, King's College, London.

Rev. J. Davey, B.A., Queen's College, Cambridge: to be Head Master of Hereford Grammar School.

Rev. T. H. Kingdon: to be Vice-Principal of Salisbury Diocesan College.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—Secondary instruction is being reorganised in one important particular. In France, as in our own country, the industrial and commercial classes lost faith, years ago, in classical training, and demanded of the secondary schools special instruction fitting the pupils to do certain definite work by a certain day. To meet this passion for despatch, a compromise was made, known by the name *bifurcation en troisième*, which consisted in allowing the pupils to abridge or abandon their classical studies at a certain stage, and to devote the time thereby gained to exercises preparing them directly for their life-employment. This compromise was some months ago declared to have proved a failure; and now, as there are special schools for the liberal professions, for the army and navy, for agriculture, and for the school itself—witness normal schools—so special schools are to be organised with a view to industrial and commercial pursuits. They will be non-classical, but the details are not yet determined. Many dwindling classical schools in small towns will forthwith be changed into non-classical ones under the new law.

The deadening influence of over-government appears in the matter of French school books. The Imperial Council, by which they must be sanctioned, quite naturally discourages innovations; for it could hardly grant its *imprimatur* to a novelty without seeming to stamp that novelty as an improvement. This is said to be the reason why Burnou, though he considered that the middle voice of the Greek verb should be learned before the passive, yet never printed the paradigms in that order, but contented himself with recommending it in his prefaces.

GERMANY.—A Mecklenburg squire advertises for a teacher who understands gardening, and would superintend the wood, to teach two children, salary from £10 to £12! Another squire in the same district wants a teacher who has learned a trade! The same German periodical which vouches for the above states, on the authority of French documents, that there are in France 4755 female teachers with a salary of from £14 to £16 a year.

SERVIA.—Throughout all the provinces of European Turkey, education has made great progress since the establishment of Greek independence in 1830. In Servia, which had scarcely any schools

at that date, the minister of public instruction was able to report the following results for the official year 1861-2:—

	No. of Schools.	No. of Teachers.	No. of Scholars.
Primary,	309	372	10,973
Secondary,	9	59	1,657
Higher,	3	15	36

At this rate, only 1 in 100 is receiving primary instruction, so that the whole population is very far from being yet overtaken. In September last a law was passed making attendance at the primary schools obligatory, in the moderate proportion of 25 pupils for 250 families and under, 10 pupils being required for every 100 families in a parish beyond the number 250. As in other countries, the peasantry withdraw their children from school during summer, to employ them in tending flocks and the like; and in Servia, more than in countries where education is widely diffused, teachers desert their schools in order to enter the priesthood, or to seek a post under government with better emoluments than the teacher's office. Primary schools for girls exist as yet only in the towns and largest villages, one reason being that schoolmistresses are not to be had. By way of remedy, a law was passed in June last, establishing a female normal school at Belgrade.

That there should be fifteen teachers in the three colleges, and only thirty-six students, is a proof how far the government is ahead of the people. The government, indeed, does everything connected with education, even to the printing of the school-books; and it defrays all expenses, to the superseding, not only of school pence, but also of the fees usually attached to the taking of a diploma or a degree. It even spends nearly £3000 a year in supporting forty young Servians at foreign universities, Paris, Vienna, Munich, Heidelberg, Florence, Athens, St Petersburg, and Kiev.

TURKEY.—Attached to every mosque is a school; and for the same reason as to every parish in Scotland was attached a school at the Reformation. Universal instruction naturally goes with a religion based on a sacred volume, by reading which believers are to be built up in their faith. Children begin in the mosque school, by spelling out extracts from the Koran, written in big letters on a board, and they end by deciphering manuscript; for the genuine Mussulman prefers written scrolls to printed books.



Proceedings of Societies.

Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

ASSOCIATED BODY OF CHURCH SCHOOLMASTERS—LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE DISTRICT.—A meeting of the members of this district was held in St John's School, Chester, on the 19th March. After a review of the present state of the education question by the president, Mr Mason of the grammar school, Standish, Mr Jones of Liverpool introduced the question, "How may our association aid in advancing the education of the schoolmaster?" He pointed out the obvious advantages of the meetings for the interchange of experience in the practical working of a school, and the assistance thus afforded to young teachers especially. He suggested the formation of classes for the study of science and art, and the establishment of MS. magazines, which were found in Liverpool of the greatest service. Several numbers of the Liverpool one were exhibited, and examined with great interest. Mr R. Wilkinson of Bickerstaffe gave an interesting sketch of "the progress of elementary education during the last twenty-five years." Mr Gardner of Liverpool introduced a discussion on "what steps should be taken to regain the teachers' augmentation grant, or a substantial substitute for it? Have teachers any claim on government for compensation?" He pointed out, from official documents, most conclusively, that the augmentation grant was never intended to be tentative, that the withholding of its direct payment was therefore a breach of faith, that the first lien under the new code possessed no practical value, as most teachers were losing the whole or a part of these grants, and that it is the duty of teachers to seek the restoration of their direct payment, or at least to have their value guaranteed to teachers already certificated, through the managers. If this were not done, he considered they had a good claim upon government for compensation. He considered that, in the first place, united action was absolutely necessary; that petitions, clearly setting forth the injustice of recent legislation, and the hardships many teachers were consequently undergoing, should be presented to parliament, and that steps should be taken to bring the question before the House of Commons; that a strenuous opposition should be raised against the motion introduced by Mr Walter during the last two sessions of parliament; and that teachers should not rest content till the vice president of the council was removed from office. These suggestions were unanimously adopted by the meeting.

BRITISH WYSELEYAN AND PRESBYTERIAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.—The annual meeting of the teachers

of this association was held in the Royal Jubilee school Newcastle-upon-Tyne, on Saturday last. The secretary had no report to read, as no meetings had been held during the past year. It is to be hoped that the present year will reveal a better state of things, and if the meeting of Saturday can be taken as any criterion, there need be no doubt of its doing so. After the rules had been carefully revised, and new members appointed to serve on the committee, Mr Dawson of Burradon read an excellent paper on the "Decimal System of Weights and Measures." In it he strongly advocated the introduction of the French system, on the grounds of simplicity, economy, and the greater facility of exchange with foreign countries. He thought that its introduction should be compulsory, after three or five years' notice, thus giving all an opportunity of making themselves thoroughly acquainted with its workings. Continued delay was only increasing the difficulties in the way of its adoption. An animated discussion ensued, in which Messrs Mavor, Johnson, Elliott, Goddard, and Corder, took part, who agreed with Mr Dawson in nearly all particulars. It was then resolved that the next quarterly meeting should be held in Morpeth, about the middle of June, when the proceedings pending in parliament on education should be discussed.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND.—A meeting of the Edinburgh Local Association of the Institute was held in the High School on April 9—Mr Hay in the chair. On the motion of the chairman, it was agreed to record in the minutes their sense of the obligations they owed to Dr Pillans for his countenance to the institute, and for his services to the general interests of education. Mr Morrison then delivered a lecture upon "Memory." He believed that there could be no education without furnishing the memory; and unless it was well furnished, the education would be defective. The memory might be roughly defined to be of three kinds. First, voluntary, when a direct effort is made to remember. Second, spontaneous, when we remember without a direct effort. Third, involuntary, or when something adheres to the memory, even with a desire to forget it. It was of the first kind of memory that he alone proposed to speak. There were certain subjects, or parts of subjects, which ought to be formally committed to memory; but these matters ought to be of sufficient importance to warrant this special labour, and such as, without this special labour, were not likely to be permanently retained. With regard to the aids to memory, they were principally three, all the rest

being subsidiary. The first requisite was to obtain clear and vivid perceptions of the objects of study, the second was methodical arrangement, the third was iteration. Among the subsidiary aids might be

mentioned verse, and association of ideas. But the free use of artificial aids tended rather to enfeeble than to improve the memory.

The Month.

THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS.—Compromise is the precursor of defeat. Last month we had to announce how Mr Lowe, to save himself from defeat on the subject of the Endowment Minute, had offered a tardy compromise. This month we have to remark upon the defeat of the Educational Minister on the subject of the suppression and "mutilation" of the Inspectors' Reports. On the 12th of April, Lord Robert Cecil brought forward his motion in the House of Commons, condemning the mode in which the Reports were dealt with by the Education Office. An abstract of the debate is given in our Educational Intelligence. It must be observed that there are two distinct charges in this case: the one is that of mutilation of reports actually published; the other, that of suppression of reports sent in for publication. The first charge rests on the authority of Mr Walter, who alleges that a certain passage containing opinions in support of endowing schools under uncertificated teachers was "struck out." Mr Lowe denied the general allegation of garbling, but he did not directly meet the specific charge made by Mr Walter. Mr Lowe may be quite right in stating that *he* knows nothing of their proceedings. It is quite possible, however, that some of his officials in the office may not be ignorant of the matter. There is evidently room for a subterfuge here. Report says that Mr Lingen is quite as powerful, and quite as imperious, as Mr Lowe; in fact, that "My Lords" often means no more than their Lordships' secretary. It is hardly to be expected, indeed, that Mr Lowe should himself undertake the first reading of these reports. What, then, if the abridgment (not to call it mutilation) took place before the reports came under Mr Lowe's eye? This would save his conscience, and might also save his credit, though not that of his department. Certainly there is nothing in Mr Lowe's speech—in which the "galled jade" does very evidently "wince"—to contradict this explanation of how the thing is managed.

Of the other charge, that of suppression, there can be no doubt. The fact has never been, cannot be, denied, that the reports of several gentlemen of high educational, some of them of high literary standing, whose reports had been previously printed by the office, were last year returned to them, on the ground that they contained matter "not fit to be printed at the public expense." Now we do not deny the right of an educational minister to exercise a censorship of these reports, within certain limits. The exclusion of two hundred pages on the statistics of crime might fairly be held to come within these limits. Abstract discussions, metaphysical speculations, on education, may also be given up. But we deny that any remarks bearing upon the working of the existing system, in any of its details or branches, can come within these limits. We deny that facts or inferences throwing light upon any of the questions that come up, from year to year, for discussion in Parliament, can be so thrust aside. Now, wherein lay the unfitness of the suppressed reports? We have reason to know that, in the case of some of them at least, it was not in their speculative or germane character. They were thoroughly practical reports, similar in matter and in style to the reports that had previously been accepted and printed. But their conclusions pointed in a direction adverse to the policy of the office, and therein, and therein only, lay their unfitness for publication "at the public expense." Of this the House of Commons could easily satisfy itself by ordering the production of the suppressed reports, and it amazes us that they have not done so long ago. If Mr Lowe's statements are true, he could have no objection to this. If Lord Robert Cecil's statements are true, why has he not adopted this simple means of substantiating them?

Meantime Mr Lowe stands censured by the House of Commons, directly charged with "the mutilation of the Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools." He has made no sign of an

intention either to accept the censure and resign, or to repel the charge. But obviously the matter cannot rest here.

[Since the above was written Mr Lowe has resigned, and has been succeeded by Mr H. A. Bruce, member for Merthyr-Tydvil. Curiously enough, the explanation we hazarded above as to how the suppression was managed, turns out to have pointed in the right direction. The blame is thrown over upon a clerk in the office :—Strange office ; and convenient clerk.]

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.—The compromise on this subject, referred to above, has not been accepted by Mr Adderley, and his party. On the 10th of May that gentleman will move that the Minute of March 11th "does not meet the objections made to the Minute of May 19th 1863." The reasons against the Revised Minute—which will be found on another page—embody the grounds on which its predecessor was objected to, with the addition of one condemning the distinction attempted to be drawn between "small rural schools" and schools in small towns, and places where it is difficult to raise the requisite subscriptions. The result of the debate on the Inspectors' Reports does not hold out very encouraging prospects to the Government; while the hopes and spirits of their opponents are being proportionately raised.

EDINBURGH LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—What we last month stated as a strong probability, we have this month the pleasure of announcing as an accomplished fact. The first official programme of the Edinburgh Local Examinations has been issued; and the subject is already exciting great interest in different parts of Scotland—such interest as fully warrants us in anticipating for the movement undoubted success.

The bold step taken, single-handed, by the Edinburgh Senatus has taken the other Universities by surprise. In particular, the University of St Andrews has charged its metropolitan rival with stealing a march upon them, and with poaching upon their preserves. It appears that, two or three years ago, when the matter was first

mooted in Scotland, the Edinburgh Senatus communicated with the Senatus of each of the other Universities on the subject, with the view of establishing a conjoint or uniform scheme for the whole country. They received little encouragement—little else than what is metaphorically called cold water—in reply. The objections of the St Andrews Senatus, it is true, were chiefly on matters of detail, and they indicated a general willingness to enter into the proposal. But they subjoined very explicitly the condition that they would only enter into the matter in conjunction with all the other Universities. When the subject was revived in Edinburgh, the Senatus saw that it was impossible to have this condition fulfilled, and they rightly felt that it would only involve further delay were they again to attempt to move two utterly passive Universities for the sake of one half-friendly one. They therefore determined to proceed on their own account, and we think the country will approve the wisdom, and commend the independence of their course.

The charge of poaching is based on an arrangement under the Parochial Schoolmasters' Act, whereby a certain district of Scotland is assigned to each University for the examination of schoolmasters. But this arrangement has, and can have, no connection whatever with the Universities, either in their proper work, or in any of their subsidiary operations. It were as reasonable to object to the University of Edinburgh drawing students from Fife or Aberdeen, as to object to their examining school-boys from or in these counties. In fact, the plea will not bear a moment's investigation. It is still open, however, to St Andrews to join Edinburgh in this matter. We do not anticipate that the latter University would stand in the way of such a combination. Certain we are that this is the only way in which St Andrews can successfully participate in the movement. When they talk of starting an independent scheme, they do not, surely, know the difficulties in which they will certainly involve themselves. Let us hope that they will "be wise to-day;" for they may find to their cost that in this, as in more momentous affairs, "'tis madness to defer."



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

AN EXAMINATION UNDER THE REVISED CODE.

THU may possibly interest some readers of *The Museum* to know in detail how an examination under the New Code is conducted. The particular examination which we propose to describe from personal observation may or may not be a good type of the way in which Her Majesty's Inspectors usually conduct the annual inspection of a school; but it may probably serve as an average specimen. As the whole question is one of detail, and as this paper can only be of service to those who care for detail, we do not apologise for describing some matters, which, though apparently small and insignificant, tend to shew the real character of the examination, and to throw light on the probable effects of the new system in its relation to the future of elementary schools.

In the case to which reference is now to be made, the number of children was about 180, of whom about forty were presented in the 1st, 2d, and 3d standards respectively, twenty-five in the 4th, twenty in the 5th, and fifteen in the 6th. The children were arranged in groups corresponding to their standards, and a glance at the registers appeared to satisfy the Inspector that this arrangement corresponded fairly to the ordinary classification of the school.

The children in all the standards were seated in their places, and were provided with slates. Those of the 4th, 5th, and 6th standards were also furnished with half sheets of ruled foolscap, on the top line of which each scholar was desired to write his name, and the number of his standard, on the second line his age, and on the third

the name of his school. The inspector then proceeded to give out the written work to the children of the second group in succession, beginning with the lowest.

First Standard.—These were simply desired to write down in a column the four figures, 5, 7, 4, and 9, and to add them up. They were also required to write a single word in large hand underneath, "Corn."

Second Standard.—Two sums were dictated to these children in words, thus: Put down *three hundred and forty-six*; under that, *nineteen*; under that, *fifty-seven*; under that, *four hundred*; under that, *eight*; and under that, *eleven*. These are for addition. Also put down *three thousand four hundred and twenty-six*, and beneath it set down *nine hundred and forty-eight* for subtraction. The writing exercise to be done in large hand was simply a line to be copied from an ordinary reading tablet, "Cork is the bark of a tree."

Third Standard.—Here the dictation exercise was given first. It consisted of two or three sentences read from an easy monosyllabic reading lesson, "Look up at the blue sky. The sun is there. It shines on you, and warms you."

For testing the arithmetic of this standard the Inspector produced from his pocket a number of small cards, on each of which were printed three sums. No two of these cards were alike, so all danger of copying was avoided. Each child was provided with one, and told to work the sums in silence, and to cover his slate, and to keep it clean

until the inspector returned. One of these cards will serve as a specimen of the rest :—

"I. Add together 896, 208, 15, 4076, 29, and 7.

II. Take seven hundred and seventeen from three thousand.

III. Multiply 49625 by seven."

It will be observed here that these sums, like all the rest which were given at this examination, demand from the pupil a little effort in interpreting and constructing the problems for himself. They are very simple in substance, but their form is so varied that, unless the arithmetic had been taught with some intelligence, the children would have been very unlikely to arrange or work them correctly.

Fourth Standard.—The exercise in dictation here was to be written on paper, which by this time was properly headed with the names, &c. of the scholars. The passage was a short and simple one, selected from the reading book ordinarily used in the class :—

"The large bird which we call an ostrich is a native of Africa. It runs across the deserts of sand much more swiftly than a horse. Any one who has seen ostrich feathers would naturally suppose that the bird which wore them had fine wings, and could fly swiftly. But the ostrich cannot fly at all."

For the arithmetical exercise a set of small cards was used, as in the third standard. Each child was told to work the sums on the slate first, and to transfer them, with the question, to the sheet of paper, when he had obtained the answers. The following is one of the cards selected at random :—

"I. Add together £79, 16s. 2½d., £4, 8s. 9d., £20183, 14s. 2d., and 17s. 6½d.

II. Take £234, 16s. 2½d. from a thousand pounds.

III. Divide £863, 12s. 6d. by 8."

Fifth Standard.—To the children of this group the inspector dictated a verse of poetry, desiring them to be careful about the arrangement of the lines, about the use of capitals, and the placing of stops :—

"Thou art, O God, the life and light

Of all this wondrous world we see ;

Its glow by day, its smile by night,

Are but reflections caught from Thee.

Where'er we turn, Thy glories shine,

And all things fair and bright are Thine."

The exercises in arithmetic were varied, as in the third and fourth standards, and consisted of easy problems in the rules of arithmetic prescribed by Article 48 of the Revised Code. One specimen will suffice, as they all contained sums of

similar character, and of about the same degree of difficulty :—

"I. Take 19 lbs. 7 oz. 5 dwts. 18 grs., from 22 lbs. 6 oz. 8 dwts. (Troy).

II. What is the price of 16 cwt. at 1s. 7½d. per lb.?

III. From 1000 guineas take 10,000 pence."

Sixth Standard.—The passage chosen for dictation consisted of about five lines from the newspaper of that morning, about the movements of the Prince and Princess of Wales. Nearly all of the cards distributed among the children of this standard contained sums in practice, and accounts to be made out in the ordinary form of a tradesman's bill. The following may be taken as an average specimen :—

"I. Find the price of 86,924 articles, at 8s. 8½d. each.

II. Make out a bill and receipt for 8 pieces of black cloth, 25 yards each, at 11s. 6d. per yard, 124 yards of calico, at 4d., 18 yards of canvass, at 8d., 56 vest pieces, at 9s. 4d. each."

The dictation of all these exercises, and the methodical arrangement of the several groups, occupied the Inspector, with the assistance of the master and his pupil-teachers, about three quarters of an hour. As soon as this work had been completed, and each class had been placed under supervision, the Inspector took his seat at a table, and the children of the several standards marched up to him in the order in which their names occurred in the examination schedule lying before him.

In the *First Standard* each child produced his slate, and to each the Inspector proposed one question at least on the figures which had been written, with a view to ascertain whether they were his own, and whether he could combine simple numbers, and write down the results. The child was then required to read two or three words, to which the Inspector pointed on a reading board, or in the lowest reading-book used in the school. The marks were made in the schedule as each child passed on.

The work of examining the children of the *Second Standard* appeared to be the most tedious of all. For as the same two sums had been dictated to all, it was necessary for the Inspector to ask each child one or two testing questions as to the manner in which the answer had been obtained, or as to the notation of the figures. Besides this, each child received one question in the multiplication table, and was required to read about a line from an easy reading book, before the Inspector was able to mark him for all the three subjects.

In the *Third Standard* the work was more simple. Before the first name on the list was

called, every scholar was provided with his reading book; a page was selected, and the whole were arranged in the order corresponding to that of the names in the schedule. One after another came up, and after handing up his slate and his card of questions, read a sentence while the Inspector glanced at the writing and at the sums.

In like manner, the remaining classes came up in order, each one handing in his paper, with the card of questions, and reading a sentence, before he passed on. As all these papers were taken home and examined afterwards, the work of examining the three upper classes, and of marking the names, was practically limited to the reading exercise.

It was understood that in estimating the writing of the Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Standards, spelling was also taken into account; so that writing barely passable would be allowed to pass if the spelling was correct, while very clear and good writing would cause one or two errors in orthography to be condoned. The estimate of the arithmetic depended partly on the accuracy of the answer, and partly on the method of working. A child would pass, it was said, who had one correct answer, if the other two sums were right in principle, and had been understood.

In reading there were fewer failures than in any other subject, as the Inspector passed all in the lower classes who could pronounce the words promptly; and in the higher, all who read with tolerable fluency. But he appeared to wish that the present year should not be taken as a precedent in this respect, and stated that, in future examinations, regard would be had to the style and intelligence of the reading, as well as to its correctness.

On the whole, the standards of examination prescribed by the Code were rather leniently applied, in consideration of the fact, that the present is the first year of the new system, and that teachers have necessarily felt some difficulty in preparing their scholars for an untried method of examination. But it is the general belief that a rather stricter mode of interpreting the requirements of the Code will prevail at the second and subsequent examinations.

The work of individual examination thus described occupied about two hours, and it was time to dismiss the morning school. The interval was employed by the Inspector in looking over the registers, in making some observations on the state of the premises, in making the official entry in the log-book, and in hearing the pupil-teachers read or recite. As the collective examination of the pupil-teachers had taken place on a previous day, the Inspector brought with him the

papers which those young people had worked, and on which he had made his own marks of censure or approval. He shewed each of them to the pupil-teacher who had prepared it, and pointed out to him his faults, and such matters as required to receive special attention in the coming year.

The afternoon was devoted to the general inspection of the school, which appears not to have been superseded, though necessarily shortened, by the modern system of individual examination. The Inspector requested that the children should be assembled in the ordinary classes, and that each teacher should take his own class as usual. He then began with the lowest class, put a few questions to the children collectively, asked them to spell a few simple words, and to count some of the objects in the room, and having asked the teacher in charge to describe the usual method of working, requested that the children might be sent home. In like manner he visited the other classes in succession, spending a few minutes with each, hearing the pupil-teacher give questions, and then proposing a few, either on spelling or the meaning of the words of the reading lesson, on elementary geography, or on some subject of instruction which had not been touched upon in the examination of the morning. He stayed longest with the highest class, which remained after the rest of the children were dismissed; and after requesting the master to put a few questions on the reading lesson then in hand, proceeded to inquire into the method adopted with respect to home lessons, and to ask a few questions on geography, grammar, and history. The principal object of the afternoon's inspection was said to be, to ascertain how far the general intelligence of the school had been cultivated, and to what extent other subjects than those prescribed in the Code had received attention. Though the result of these inquiries would probably not affect the amount of the grant, unless there had been unusual deadness and ignorance in the school, or clumsiness in its teaching or organisation, it materially affected the estimate which the Inspector would form as to the worth and credit of the school, and formed the principal subject of the general report which was afterwards transmitted to the managers.

A glance at the copy-books and drawings, which had by this time been spread open along the desks for exhibition, and a satisfactory entry on the master's parchment certificate, terminated a day's work, which, though somewhat laborious for Her Majesty's Inspector, has probably exerted a wholesome and enduring influence on the children, and on the prosperity and usefulness of the school.

DAY-DREAMS OF A SCHOOLMASTER.*



OUR schoolmaster is no ordinary dreamer; neither is our day-dreamer an ordinary schoolmaster. It is not often that we find members of the scholastic profession making contributions to real literature, such as the volume before us. For, in spite of a good deal of what we must take leave to call mannerism, there can be no doubt about Mr D'Arcy Thompson's genuine literary power. And the mannerism in this case really belongs to the man. It is part of his individuality. It is not, we believe, a mere artifice of style,—the toggery of office, assumed for the nonce. It is of the writer's essence, and therefore can be called mannerism only in a limited sense. The book is full of this strong personal flavour. We are sometimes tempted, while we read, to call it egotism, but the term would be apt to mislead; for it is that natural, unconscious egotism, which springs from honest earnestness of character, and is, therefore, void of offence. We have said so much, to indicate the general character of the work. Education, in all its aspects and phases, is its subject; but it does not belong to educational literature merely. It takes a much wider range, and deserves a much higher place. At times you think you are reading an autobiography; at others, a history of school systems; at others, a philosophy of education. The manner in which these various elements are blended, renders the book a remarkable one. It is a book to be read by parents fully as much as by schoolmasters. It is full of sound sense and originality; and there is nothing more original in it than its vein of poetic sentiment, and its telling touches of caustic humour.

The field over which Mr Thompson carries us is very wide, and very varied. To enumerate the different topics discussed, we should need to go over the chapters *seriatim*. But the day-dreams spring from an obvious source, and lead to an obvious conclusion. Like Ascham in his "Schole-master," he first aims at propounding "a plain and perfect way of teaching children to understand, write, and speak the Latin tongue." But, like old Roger too, he very soon flies off at a tangent to deal with the general question of "the bringing up of youth," and is thus led into many a pleasant by-path of the educational field. The

author's reminiscences of his own school-days are not wholly satisfactory as regards the kind of intellectual training to which he was subjected. The opening chapters deal with these reminiscences; and they have evidently led him to entertain an unmeasured contempt for the traditional methods of teaching, which still exist to so large an extent in the English public schools.

From these traditional methods Mr Thompson has boldly attempted to shake himself free. He does not shrink from telling us that, however satisfactory to himself the results have been, his efforts have not been appreciated by his employers. He oftener than once complains that he has been a sufferer from his innovations. "From time to time," he says, "when I was indulging in a dream of appreciated toil, I heard of complaints being circulated by such as were favourers of mechanism in instruction. Pupils, in whose progress I had begun to take a keen interest, were from time to time removed without a word of explanation, or the civility of a farewell. 'They were not grounded,' said these waggish but unmannerly guardians; meaning, all the while, 'They were not ground.'" It is, to some extent, in self-defence, therefore, though also with the more disinterested view of correcting flagrant abuses, that Mr Thompson comes forth with this account of his system of teaching. The gist of his views on this subject may be gathered from the following passage:—

"In the declensions and conjugations—say, of Latin—as we find them, there is so much of phonetic corruption, that the changes of termination may be, for a while at least, regarded as arbitrary. Had we them presented to us in their primitive form, memory would be little needed, and judgment would do almost all our work. As it is, memory is here absolutely required. The declensions and conjugations, then, *must* be committed to memory; at first, unreasoningly; we must wait awhile before we give the solution to the riddles of their inflexions; some, perhaps, we shall have to leave unsolved. The rules of gender also, and the commonly recurring exceptions, must be similarly learned; they may be compressed *within a page and a half* of an ordinary octavo. We may, reasonably, take it for granted that a young student of Latin is capable of analysing an ordinary sentence in his own language: that, in the following sentences—

"(1.) This is my father's hat;

"(2.) He loved his brother;

"(3.) He gave me nothing :

"(4.) This is the house that Jack built :

"(5.) There is no saying :
he will understand that.

"(1.) *My* is in the possessive case, as agreeing with the possessive *father's* ;

"That (2.) *his brother* is an accusative or *primary object* after *loved* ;

"That (3.) *nothing* is accusative after *gave* ; and *me*, dative or *secondary object* ;

"That (4.) *the house* is nominative after *is*, a verb of existence ; and *that*, although referring to a nominative, itself an accusative after the active-transitive verb *built* ;

"That (5.) *saying*, although spelt as a participle, is a verbal noun, or a noun coined out of a verb, and in reality the nominative to *is*, and only put after it for convenience, in consequence of the intrusion of the superfluous and anticipatory word, *there*.

"Unless a pupil shall know thus much, and a good deal more, of the grammar of his own language, it would seem to me to partake of the nature of folly or cruelty to push him into the syntax of a foreign one.

"Taking for granted, then, such preliminary knowledge in our novice, the difficulties of Latin syntax are wonderfully lessened. *The great majority of its rules he is already acquainted with* : they are common to that syntax of simple rules, by which he should daily parse, with his Latin master, his paragraph of English. He will find that there are after all but very few rules of syntax in Latin, which might not be applied to his own tongue. He will, however, see that in Latin, an adjective is not invariable in its spelling as with us, but partakes of the nature of the mocking-bird, and imitates, musically, but not always usefully, its noun in gender, number, and case. He will observe, also, that with nouns, Latin expresses many things—such as *the manner, how* ; *the means, by which* ; *the time, when*—by case endings, which things English usually expresses by prepositions ; in other words, that Latin uses *tight affixes* where we prefer *loose prefixes*. But he will see that English also has its tight affixes in such words as *father's, him, them, whom, loves, loveth, loving, loved*. So, even in this respect, he will see that there is a partial agreement between modern English and ancient Latin, which at first seemed so totally different. And I will now hint to him, and by and by will prove to him, that his own language had once as many tight affixes as Latin, but dropt them by degrees ; just as Latin did, as it merged into what is now called Italian.

"It will very probably, then, be found that such Latin syntax, as he may be called upon to commit to memory, may be compressed within *at most two pages*. The rules for prosody should, I consider, be expunged *in toto* from his grammar. All that is necessary herein may be communicated orally by a

master, in the scansion of lines, from day to day, when his class comes to read Ovid, or Virgil, or Horace. Indeed, the analysis of noun and verb terminations, carried on from day to day, will gradually explain upon reasonable grounds almost all abnormal quantities. I think it would be difficult to bring forward in Latin half a dozen *long vowels*, final or otherwise, which could not be explained on the principle of the blending of vowels or the softening of a consonant. I have tried this oral method twice with two sets of upper classes, of which I had the the divided, though subordinate, charge, and can furnish full proofs of its success.

"The numerals also must be committed to memory, and may be so committed in at most two lessons. To learn by rote long strings of prepositions or conjunctions is to my mind worse than useless. They should be communicated orally, gradually ; like kindly gifts, stealthily. Thus, upon examination, we find that all that requires unreasoning memory may be reduced to the following heads :—

"(1.) The five declensions, which include all adjectives and participles :

"(2.) The rules for gender, and exceptions :

"(3.) The four conjugations, active and passive, which latter voice includes *sum* :

"(4.) The irregular verbs, *eo, volo, nolo, malo, possum* :

"(5.) Syntax ; two pages.

"All this might easily be comprehended within twenty-four octavo pages. It is only a hillock of difficulty. But instead of climbing right up the face of it—for the sides may be very steep, though the summit be within rifle-range—I should guide a pupil by the sinuous and not uninteresting path, along which I beg of you, reader, to accompany me in the next chapter.

And in the next chapter, and the next, and the next, our readers will find this system very fully described, and illustrated by sound and sensible critical remarks. On the general question, Mr Thompson is undoubtedly right. Our teaching of Latin and Greek is far too stiff and formal ; too much hampered by mechanical rules, and by traditional methods. It begins too soon ; and the formal, least interesting, and most troublesome parts of it are carried on too long. That which boys of 9 acquire but imperfectly after six or seven years of tedious grinding, boys of 11 or 12 could easily master in three or four years. Though no one can have a perfect knowledge of grammar, even of the grammar of his own language, without studying Latin and Greek, we believe that the progress in the latter would be far more rapid and sure, were boys to be first well grounded (not necessarily *ground*) in the vernacular. Latin syntax

would lose half its perplexity were boys first enabled to comprehend the principles of the structure of sentences in a language which they understand, and which they are using every day. The natural result of the mechanical and protracted method is apparent in the very small proportion of those who spend six or seven years in studying the classics, who turn out tolerable scholars. But whether we take the long or the shorter period, by all means let us have a rational method,—a method which will appeal to the intelligence of the learner, not merely tax his memory; which will encourage spontaneous exertion, not merely over-burden and repel. Such a method pre-eminently we have in the system propounded in this volume.

Mr Thompson contends as bravely with the antiquated method of discipline as with that of teaching; and here his views are likely to meet with more general concurrence. It may be a generation or two ere we get rid of the "monotonous music of the gerund-stone," but we have almost seen the last of the "implement of simple leather," as a means, at least, of exciting to study. Mr Thompson describes the qualms of conscience under which he laboured so long as he flourished this "implement," in a chapter entitled, "Tint, Tint, Tint," not more remarkable for its common sense than for its delicate pathos, from which we extract the following:—

"But still, although I was conscious that I used the implement with good intent, and aware that it was similarly used by men who were my superiors in age, and certainly not my inferiors in kindness and sympathy with boyhood, I was haunted with an idea that the use of it was founded on an error in our system of instruction; and I was long pondering where the error could lie; and I found the subject far more difficult than I had at first supposed; and I confess it still to be a problem difficult of solution.

"I was in this frame of mind one day, when, according to an unalterable rule, there came under the influence of the electric implement a little, quiet, well-behaved, and intelligent foreigner. The application had scarce been made, when a young comrade—bless the lad!—gave vent to an unmistakeable hiss! Order, of course, was immediately and energetically re-established. But in my walk that afternoon by the sea, and in many a lonely walk afterwards, I thought about that little foreigner and his courageous comrade. And I thought how that little foreigner, returning to his own land, the ancient home of courtesy and gentle manners, would tell his friends of our rude, northern ways. And I trembled at the idea of my usage of the Electric Leather being narrated in the hearing of one of those terrible Colonels, whom their Emperor holds

with difficulty in the leash. For I thought if ever our great metropolis were in their hands, how ill it would fare with all therein that turned the gerund-stone, and with those therein that bare my hapless surname. And the name of these is Legion. And knowing that the comrade was no vulgar and low-natured boy, I felt sure in my heart that there was at least something right in the impulse that had pushed him into danger and disobedience. But still I was afraid of allowing sentimentalism or impulsiveness on my part to take the place of duty however stern and unpalatable.

"I was standing not alone one morning in the lobby of my own home, just before leaving for the day's work. A great-coat of mine was hanging from the wall. My Companion, in a playful mood, put a small, white hand into one of its pockets, and drew a something out; then thrust it back hurriedly, as though it had been a something venomous. And over a very gentle face passed a look of surprise not unmingled with reproof; but the reproof gave way almost momentarily to the wonted smile. But I long remembered the mild reproof upon that gentle face; for it was an expression very seldom seen there; and it came afterwards to be numbered with other sad and sweet memories.

"Meanwhile, at the end of the last bench upon my class sat a boy who was very backward in his learning. He was continually absent upon what seemed to me frivolous pretences. These absences entailed upon me much additional trouble. I had occasionally to keep him and a little remnant in the room when the others had gone out to play; to make up to him and them for lost time. And on one occasion my look was very cross, and my speech very short; for it seemed to me provoking that children should be so backward in their Latin. And when the work was over, and we two were left alone, he followed me to my desk; and said: 'You have no idea, sir, how weak I am.' And I said: 'Why, my boy, you look stout enough.' But he answered: 'I am really very weak, sir; far weaker than I look!' and there was a pleading earnestness in his words that touched me to the heart; and, afterwards, there was an unseen chord of sympathy that bound the master to the pupil, who was still very dull at Latin.

"And still he would be absent; at times, for a day or two together. But it excited no surprise. For the boy seemed to sit almost a stranger among his fellows; and in play hours seemed to take no interest in boyish games. And by and by he had been absent for some weeks together. But I was afraid to ask concerning him; thinking he might have been removed, as many boys had been, without a letter of explanation, or his shaking me by the hand. And one morning I received a letter with a broad, black edge, telling me that he had died the day previously of a virulent, contagious fever.

"So when school was over, I made my way to his vilome lodging; and stood at the door, pondering. For the fever, of which the child had died, had been to me a Death-in-life, and had passed like the Angel of old over my dwelling, but, unlike that Angel, had spared my first-born, and only-born. And because the latter sat each evening on my knee, I was afraid of the fever, and intended only to leave my card, as a mark of respectful sympathy. But the good woman of the house said: 'Nay, nay, Sir, but ye'll see the Laddie;'" and I felt drawn by an influence of fatherhood more constraining than a father's fears, and followed the good woman into the small and dim chamber where my pupil was lying. And, as I passed the threshold, my masterhood slipped off me like a loose robe; and I stood very humble and pupil-like in that awful Presence, that teacheth a wisdom to babes and sucklings, to which our treasured lore is but a jingling of vain words. And, when left alone, I drew near the cheerless and dismantled bed, on which my pupil lay asleep in his early coffin. And he looked very calm and happy, as though there had been to him no pain in passing from a world where he had had few companions and very little pleasure. And I knew that his boyhood had been as dreary as it had been short; and I thought that the good woman of his lodging had perhaps been his only sympathizing friend at hand. And I communed with myself whether aught I had done could have made his dulness more dull. And I felt thankful for the chord of sympathy that had united us, unseen, for a little while. But, in a strange and painful way, I stood rebuked before the calm and solemn and unrebuking face of the child on whom I had frowned for his being backward in his Latin.

"That evening, as usual, my own child was seated on my knee, making sunrise out of sunset for myself and his Mother's mother. And the table was alive with moo-cows, and bow-wows, and silly sheep. And we sang snatches of impossible songs; or hid ourselves behind chairs and curtains in a barefaced and undeceitful manner. And the Penates at my hearth, that were chipped and broken, blinked merrily by the fire light; and the child was taken to his tiny bed; and the chipped Penates, thereupon, slowly faded out of view, and disappeared among the cinders.

"And I sat, musing; alone. And yet not all alone. For in the chair, where recently had been sitting the mother of my child's Mother, there sat a grey, transparent Shape. And the Shape and I were familiar friends. He had sat with me many a time from midnight until when the morning had come peeping through the green lattice. And he had peopled all the chambers of my house with sad thoughts and black-stoled memories. So, never heeding my familiar friend, I sat, staring in the fire, and thinking.

"And I thought, sadly and almost vindictively, of the dreary years of my own early boyhood, with their rope of sand, and the mill-wheel that had ground no corn. And I remembered how at times there would come to me in my exile the sound of my brother's laugh, and the sweeter music of my Mother's voice. But I remembered thankfully, that through years of monotonous work and rough usage I had enjoyed sound health, and had had companions with whom I had walked, and talked, and romped, and fought cheerily.

"And I wondered whether I should be spared to see my own child grow to be a merry and frank-hearted little fellow; to hear the music of his ringing laugh; to see his face flushed with rude but healthful sport; to hear of him as beloved for many boyish virtues, and reproved, not unlovingly, for his share of boyish faults. And I longed to be climbing with him the hill of Difficulty; and lightening the ascent for him with varied converse; resting now and then to look down upon the valley, or to let him gather blue-bells that grew on the hill side.

"And then I thought of a boy who had sat of late on the last bench in my class-room, with a timid and scared look beside his bluff and bold companions; who had stood in the noisy play-ground, lonely as in a wilderness; whom I had seen that afternoon in his early coffin, with the seal upon his forehead of Everlasting Peace; the peace that passeth all understanding.

"So I determined; from the recollections of my own dreary boyhood; for the mild reproof that once had clouded momentarily very gentle eyes; for the love I bare my own little one; and for the calm and unrebuking face I had seen that afternoon; that I would do as little as possible in the exercise of my stern duties to make of life a weariness to young children; and especially to such as should be backward in their Latin."

The same subject is continued in the succeeding chapter on "The Pressure of Gentleness." After giving various illustrations of the power of kindness, he continues,—

"I have met with a schoolmaster in Scotland who could govern a crowd of boys in one room, though they might be divided into scattered groups, and engaged in varied work; and his only implements of discipline were a word or two of good-natured banter or kindly encouragement, and occasionally a calm and stern rebuke. I have been much struck by the expression of his opinion, that physical coercion cannot be dispensed with altogether. In defiance, however, of a kindness, a sagacity, and a judgment that I respect, I do most firmly believe that the necessity for physical chastisement rests mainly upon two blemishes in our ordinary school system: the mechanical nature of our routine of work, and the crowding of our class-rooms. In the latter

respect we are more at fault than our English brethren, in the former we are far less sinning. In the teaching of our elementary classes we employ far more spirit and far less wood; and I wish I could add, *no leather*. There is less of a gulf between pupil and master. The severest means of physical chastisement at the disposal of the latter is almost innocuous. But mild as our implement may be from the point of view of physical pain inflicted, its employment is of necessity associated with some degree of odium, and a more formidable amount of ridicule. I am convinced that many children imagine that we, schoolmasters, were as naturally born with tawee as foxes with tails. Did you ever see children in a nursery play at school? The rule seems to be for the elder brother to play our part, and that part is limited to the fun or business of flogging all his little sisters.

"We have gone a great way already in Scotland in the way of civilised teaching, in forbearing to use an instrument of acute pain and an instrument of indecent brutality. Let us make a further advance, and if we can invent some intellectual and moral substitute for our ridiculous scourges, let us send the latter in bundles to the public schools of England, to be there adopted when their system is sufficiently ripened by a few extra centuries of Christianity. Let us clothe their scholastic nakedness with the last rags of our barbarism. Our boys will be none the less manly and respectful. Flogging can never instil courage into a child, but it has helped to transform many an one into a sneak. And sneakishness is a vice more hard to eradicate than obduracy. So far from curing an ill-conditioned boy of rude and vulgar ways, it is calculated rather to render inveterate in him a distaste for study, and a stolid hatred of our craft.

"Let us be less careful of the mere number of our classes, and more careful of their intellectual culture. Let us care more for what we think of ourselves than what the public think of us. The respect of others follows close upon self-respect. Let us not care to be called of men, *Rabbi, Rabbi*. Let us be contented with classes of limited numbers, every member of which can keep pace with a properly-advancing curriculum. Let us aim at a broad and invigorating culture, not a narrow and pedantic one. Let us ignore examinations of college or civil service, and aim only at the great and searching examination of actual life. Let our aims be high and generous, irrespective of the exactions of unreasoning parents and well-meaning but unqualified intermeddlers. Let our means of coercion be dignified, in spite of the trials to which our tempers may be exposed. Let us endeavour to make our pupils love their work without fearing us. They may live—God knows—to love us. Whether they ever love us or not perhaps matters but little, if we do our work single-heartedly. The *mens conscia recti* is of itself no

mean reward. I am, perhaps, an enthusiast; but I have an idea that, ere a generation has passed away, the last sound of the last tawee will be heard in the leading grammar schools of Scotland. Her scholars will be none the worse taught, and her schoolmasters none the less respected, when instruction has been made less rugged in her aspect, and discipline is maintained by the more than hydraulic pressure of a persistent and continuous gentleness."

And far more telling than anything he has said specifically on "The Social Position of Schoolmasters," is the appeal with which this chapter closes:—

"And, O brother schoolmaster, remember evermore the exceeding dignity of our calling. It is not the holiest of all callings, but it runs near and parallel to the holiest. The lawyer's wits are sharpened, and his moral sense 'not seldom blunted, by a life-long familiarity with ignorance, chicanery, and crime. The physician, in the exercise of a more beneficent craft, is saddened continually by the spectacle of human weakness and human pain. We have usually to deal with fresh and unpolluted natures. A noble calling but a perilous. We are dressers in a moral and mental vineyard. We are under-shepherds of the Lord's little ones; and our business it is to lead them into green pastures, by the sides of refreshing streams. Let us into our linguistic lessons introduce cunningly and imperceptibly all kinds of amusing stories; stories of the real kings of earth, that have reigned in secret, crownless and unaccepted, leaving the vain show of power to gilded toy-kings and make-believe statesmen; of the angels that have walked the earth in the guise of holy men and holier women; of the seraph-singers, whose music will be echoing for ever; of the cherubim of power, that with the mighty wind of conviction and enthusiasm have winnowed the air of pestilence and superstition.

"Yes, friend, throw a higher poetry than all this into your linguistic work, the poetry of pure and holy motive. Then, in the coming days, when you are fast asleep under the green grass, they will not speak lightly of you over their fruit and wine, mimicking your accent, and retailing dull, insipid boy-pleasantries. Enlightened by the experience of fatherhood, they will see with a clear remembrance your firmness in dealing with their moral faults, your patience in dealing with their intellectual weakness. And, calling to mind the old schoolroom, they will think: 'Ah! it was good for us to be there. For, unknown to us, were made therein three tabernacles, one for us, and one for our schoolmaster, and one for Him that is the Friend of all children, and the Master of all schoolmasters.'

"Ah! believe me, brother mine, where two or three children are met together, unless He who is

the Spirit of gentleness be in the midst of them, then our Latin is but sounding brass, and our Greek a tinkling cymbal."

One of the secondary subjects of which Mr Thompson treats most successfully is that of female education. He evidently understands well its generally flimsy and showy character, as well as the chicanery which is employed to make it appear very real and substantial:—

"You will wonder, reader, what spirit of impertinence leads me to meddle with the arcana of our boarding schools. I am quite aware that I have no more right to pry into the mysteries of a lady's education than into those of her toilet. But I cannot help hearing what I hear; seeing what I see. In every street I pass wonderingly beneath overshadowing domes of crinoline; and dainty silken stays peep out of the windows of that shop in George Street, which is, I believe, termed a *Magasin*, from the inflammatory and inflammable nature of its contents. In another shop window in that same street I often see what are called Object Cards, which were invented by some spiteful, and, of course, male wretch, for the purpose of frittering away the time and intellects of all subsequent generations of girlhood. To one of these cards I saw attached a small piece of coal, and underneath it was printed a farrago of chemical and other gibberish, which goes by the satirical name of 'useful information.' To another was attached a piece of sponge, too small to clean a slate, but apparently large enough to absorb a whole page of wishy-washy observations. To another was pinned a butterfly's wing. I am convinced that inside the shop I might have seen cards illustrative of natural history, ornamented with impaled cockroaches and nasty martyred earwigs. What do instructors of young girls do with these cards? Do they read out loud the nonsense written underneath as texts for informational sermons? And, in doing so, can they retain their gravity? If they have such command of facial muscle, O why do they waste in a school-room those talents for low comedy which would win them renown and fortune at the Adelphi?

"I heard only a few days since that our girls were fed upon *Latin roots*. I asked through what process of cookery these roots might have passed. I was informed that they were invariably given raw. Such indigestible food I knew to be fit only for pigs. And my blood boiled within me to think that such should be the dewless nurture of the sweet acorn-cups of future womanhood; the pretty embryo-possibilities of maternity; that such copper handling should be made of the silver pieces of small change, whose universality makes the golden guinea of a Madonna.

"Then, again, I have heard of globes whose use is taught in secret. I wonder *how* they use them.

Do they roll them up and down their school-rooms? or toss them up to catch them in gigantic cups? or, more gracefully than acrobats in the circus, patter them with pretty feet up and down inclined planes?

"But my little lady-reader, if you have mysteries in your boarding-school, so has your brother at Rugby, and your cousin who is preparing for examination at the Horse Guards. The former is improving into Alcaics the aphorisms of Tupper: the latter is gathering universal history from the pictured page of a Chepmell. O little reader, did you ever study the work of this great historian? I wish I had a portrait of him. I should hang it over my mantel-piece in an inverted position, which position I should alter to the natural one so soon as I should fall in with one individual who could make head or tail of his cui-earthly-bono writings.

"Music is supposed to be a *sine quâ non* in the education of all girls. The boarding-schools of Dunedin are allowed a very high position in the field of feminine didactics; for Dunedin is the intellectual capital of an education-loving kingdom. In one of our very fashionable and aristocratic schools you will see a music-master in the course of three hours pass fifteen little strumming maidens through his hands. He gives this lesson, of superintendence it is called, once a week. In another still more fashionable school this electric telegraph superintendence is given once a fortnight. In twelve minutes the master has to hear an old lesson played, to settle the piece for the next lesson, to write a good or bad mark in a note-book, and occasionally to take a pinch of snuff, or blow his weary nose. The little pupil in the latter school has about eleven minutes of male supervision in the course of a fortnight; which would give fifty-five seconds per diem, if the work were distributed over all the week days. Have these music-masters never heard of Richardson's Theatre, where a tragedy, a comedy, and a comic song are all enacted within the limits of their perspiring lessons?

"May not this electric telegraph system of musical instruction explain the general shallowness of our drawing-room music? The fault can hardly be in the brains or fingers of our girls, for they come of a race that has produced the most exquisite ballad-system and the best collection of love-songs in all Europe. Some thousands of our girls are studying music year by year; yet for every girl-musician in Dunedin you would find thirty in less populous Brussels, and ten in insignificant Bruges. And what are Belgian girls to the girls of Scotland?

"Modern languages are taught at all schools to all pupils. How often, reader, have you met with a girl of fifteen who could write French correctly, or speak it with a good accent; although she might have studied the language for four years at a flourishing school? This is not the fault of our girls; the

cause lies deeper. Our boarding-schools are too often mere business speculations, whose proprietors have as much real interest in the mental culture of their charges as a hotel-keeper in the spiritual welfare of his guests; men of talent are often employed by them in work degrading to themselves and useless to their pupils; and very often sharp and ready fellows are employed that never received the education of gentlemen, and were never intended to address a lady without the intervention of a counter. If a system is vulgar that employs incompetency, that sweats and underpays talent, is there no vulgarity in those patrons whose call for cheap teaching is the source of all the mischief? What do we want with your fine musicians and over-educated scholars? Give us teaching-stuff that will stand wear and tear; catgut nerves and gutta-percha brains!"

We cannot resist the temptation to quote from the same chapter a short prose idyll of exquisite sweetness, all the more beautiful in its pathos, that it is evidently too, too true. It appears to have been suggested by Ben. Jonson's epitaph on Lady Pembroke:—

"Underneath this sable hearse
Lies, the subject of all verse,
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother;
Death! ere thou hast slain another,
Learned, and fair, and good as she,
Time shall throw a dart at thee."

But it has a power and beauty of its own.

"I imagine that the Lady Jane who read her Phædo when the horn was calling, had as pretty a mouse-face as you ever saw in a dream; and I am

sure that gentle girl was a better scholar than any lad of seventeen is now in any school of England or Scotland.

"And once upon a time, reader—a long, long while ago—I knew a schoolmaster, and that schoolmaster had a wife, and she was young and fair and learned, like that princess pupil of old Ascham; fair and learned as Sydney's sister, Pembroke's mother. And her voice was ever soft, gentle and low, reader, an excellent thing in woman. And her fingers were quick at needlework, and nimble in all a housewife's cunning. And she could draw sweet music from the ivory board; and sweeter, stranger music from the dull life of her schoolmaster husband. And she was slow of heart to understand mischief, but her feet ran swift to do good. And she was simple with the simplicity of girlhood, and wise with the wisdom that cometh only of the Lord, cometh only to the children of the kingdom. And her sweet, young life was as a morning hymn, sung by child-voices to rich organ-music. Time shall throw his dart at Death ere Death has slain such another.

"For she died, reader, a long, long while ago. And I stood once by her grave, her green grave, not far from dear Dunedin. Died, reader, for all she was so fair and young, and learned, and simple, and good. And I am told it made a great difference to that schoolmaster."

There are many other passages in this delightful volume which we should like to quote; but our prescribed limits are already exhausted. We trust that the samples we have given of the quality of Mr Thompson's thinking and writing will draw many of our readers to the book itself.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION OFFICE.*



DO not wish to re-open the discussion about the Revised Code of Education but I do wish to recall the fact, that the enactment of that Code, in 1862, was the result of a compromise between the Government and the House of Commons; and its provisions ought, for that very reason, to have been all the more scrupulously and strictly observed. If this had been done by Mr Lowe and Mr Lingen, I should still have been one of those who argued in favour of giving that Code a fair trial; and I would have done my best, as one deeply and sincerely interested in the work of

* From an able and plain-speaking pamphlet, entitled *A Letter on the Administration of the Parliamentary Grant for the Promotion of Education in Great Britain*, addressed to a Member of the House of Commons. By a Schoolmaster in the North. London: Groombridge & Sons, 1864.

popular education, to give every chance for a fair trial of its merits. But the *complaint of myself, and of thousands of the promoters of popular education, is, that the provisions of the Revised Code have not been honourably kept; nay, that they have been insidiously and covertly contravened.* Every one knows how easy it is for an astute barrister to drive a coach and four right through an Act of Parliament. Much more easy was it for those to whose hands Parliament had entrusted the administration of the New Code of Education, to place such interpretations upon its language, and to pass such judgments upon cases that arose out of it, as virtually to impart to it an aspect entirely different from that which it bore when it left the hands of Parliament. Unfortunately, the machinery of the Education office is so compli-

cated, that it is difficult to explain in how many ways this course has been pursued, without the risk of becoming wearisome to persons who do not happen to be familiar with the subject. The House of Commons does not like to be "bored" with a petty grievance. It will not, or rather perhaps it cannot, give its attention to the details of a department that costs no more than £774,743 per annum. The Education Department seems to have known this well, and to have presumed upon the *vis inertiae* of Parliament to an unlimited extent. Those who have taken upon themselves the important task of providing the elements of education for the children of the poor have thus to labour under a serious disadvantage. Till they have suffered some very grievous wrong, the House of Commons will not listen to them. Thus a series of trifling inroads have been made with impunity upon the provisions of the Code by its legal administrators. These gentlemen had their own views as to what the Code *ought to have been*, and they appear to have quietly resolved to interpret it so as to make it square as nearly as possible with their own pre-conceived ideas. They had brought forth a code which had been rejected by Parliament, and another code had been forced upon them by the House of Commons, and they had the misery of administering that which they detested. They were not philosophical enough to bear their defeat calmly, and to submit to it when they had in fair fight been driven from the open field. Under their hands, the Code adopted in 1862 by Parliament really had no fair chance. They were so deeply committed to another plan, that they could not treat this with common justice. This experiment seems to prove two points of some importance in a constitutional country. First, that no permanent head of a department should be allowed to draw up a scheme of reform for his own department, as Mr Lingen was permitted to do; and secondly, that no parliamentary head of a department should continue to hold office a moment after he has been by sheer force obliged to accept from his opponents a particular plan or line of policy. The permanent chief of a department ought to be strictly confined to administrative duties. He should never be invited to legislate for his own department; for, should his plans happen to be rejected by Parliament, he will scarcely ever be stoical enough to administer somebody else's plans equitably. He will ever be endeavouring to give effect to his own pet scheme; and just in proportion as his own off-spring meets with misfortune from the world at large, will he, like all partial parents, endeavour

to advance the interests of his bantling. I am disposed to maintain, therefore, that Mr Lingen ought never to have undertaken to draw up a Revised Code, unless he were prepared to resign his office in the event of his plans not being accepted by Parliament; and I am clearly of opinion that Mr Lowe ought to have resigned in 1862, when he discovered that his colleagues had not either the will or the power to pass his scheme through Parliament. Both of these gentlemen have, since that year, been in an extremely false position. One of them has now rectified the error he then made; but the other still retains his office, and still seems to be haunted with the idea that his province is to legislate as well as to administer, to wield at one and the same time the powers of Parliament and of the Government over his own department. Having once tasted the pleasure or the pain of legislation, he cannot abandon the excitement. Having made one false step in '62, he now must make many more. Upon what other principle can we explain the issue from his pen, of Letters of "Instruction" to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, or of his notorious Circular to Normal Schools in November last? Some of these documents are printed and published; but some of them are *official*, and may not be divulged by an Inspector upon pain of summary dismissal from his office. . . .

It seems of the deepest importance to place stringent limits upon the power of "*explaining*" the Minutes of Council. If the Minutes are to be laid before Parliament for its sanction, so ought the "*explanations*" put upon them by the Secretary of the Education Department; for the commentary frequently exhibits the text in a light wholly unexpected. In the copy of the Code submitted to Parliament in January of this year, there is no notice whatever of this circular. But surely it ought to have been incorporated therein quite as much as the minute which it explains. And this leads me to point out that, though the minutes are presented to Parliament for its sanction, yet that the *ipsissima verba* of a minute are not always incorporated in the Code. For example, let any one compare section 6 of the Minute, March 21, 1863, with Articles 103-110 in the Code of 1864; and also section 3 and section 8 of the same Minute with Art. 103 of the same Code.

In the process of incorporation the Minutes are thus made to receive the impress of the official hand; and the sanction of Parliament again is made a nullity. By assuming the power to change the *ipsissima verba* of minutes submitted to Parliament, and also the power to "*explain*" the

Minutes and the Code from time to time, it is plain that the Secretary of the Education Department is virtually independent of all control. It is against this state of things that school-managers protest; for it is not in the nature of Englishmen to submit tamely to the uncertain caprice of officials, to the arbitrary interpretation of law, from which there is no appeal except to Parliament, and to the exhibition of petty tyranny and insolence clothed in the stilted language of the red tape school.

If you ask me what we ask for, I answer that the promoters of schools generally would desire, in the first place, that the new Vice-President should be the actual, as well as the nominal, head of the Education Department, that he should himself sign all "explanations" of the Code, if "explanations" are to be allowed at all. If he himself signed them, we could obtain from him in his place in Parliament more satisfaction than we can ever get by exchanging foolscap letters with "my Lords."

We want the following documents to be cancelled:—

1. The Minute of May 19. 1863, in every clause. (Vid. Minutes 1862-3.)
2. The Supplementary Rules, but especially 8 and 9.
3. The Circular to Training Schools, Nov. 13. 1863.

We want to guard against such frequent, vexations, and sudden changes for the future, since it is quite impossible under the present system of administration to know from month to month upon

what basis to make the calculations of expenditure for any given school.

And therefore we suggest that no change in the Revised Code shall come into operation until at least one full month has passed after the altered Code, embodying the proposed change, has received the sanction of Parliament. The altered Code should pass through Parliament just in the same way as the Estimates; and the Vice-President should explain the reasons for every change in the Code, whether by way of addition or omission. The object throughout is to bring this department more rigidly under the control of Parliament.

We want to have the Code administered honestly and intelligibly; and we want the administrators of the Code to be debarred from being legislators; above all, we want the Secretary to be confined within the line of his legitimate functions, and we deprecate his practice of ascribing his own decisions to the inspiration of "my Lords," for every one knows that "my Lords" are a myth. Let him conduct all his correspondence honestly in his own name, and let him never put forward the authority of "my Lords" or of the Vice-President except when he has distinct and special authority for so doing.

We want to see some more active signs of the pruning knife in the cost of administering the Education Grant.

And lastly, we want to have the Inspectors' Reports delivered to Parliament and the nation just as they originally come from the pens of the writers.

ETON SCHOOLBOOKS.



LONG before the appearance of the Commissioners' Report, strong opinions had been rife in the best informed circles, as to the rottenness of the system pursued at Eton in reference to its school-books. Remarks have, ere now, been made in these pages as to the bare and bald supply of notes, with which one purveyor of Eton text-books, Mr C. D. Yonge, equipped his Virgil. And no one, competent to judge, can take up an average Eton school-book without sniffing instinctively an odour of monopoly, and discovering in its pages, that security against competition has dulled the edge of the editorial mind, so that the professed help ministered to tyros by way of note and comment, is in reality no help. The Blue Book does

but justify previous suspicion. It only confirms the feeling that, to the interests of education, free trade is absolutely necessary; whilst at the same time it leads us to ascribe some measure of the failure of Eton in producing an average number of competent scholars, as compared with other public schools, to the system of allowing masters, as a kind of perquisite, to edit a book for the school publisher, which book is destined to be used, however bad, as long as the publisher's exigencies demand.

The evidence of Messrs Johnson and James, two very intelligent assistant masters, indicates an internal objection to the existing system in this particular, though it seems that the late head master discouraged the growing clamour of his colleagues

for free trade in school-books, and that the present head master has as yet given no sign of his state of feeling on the subject. It is to be hoped, from Mr Gladstone's assurance, on Mr Grant Duff's motion of May 6th, that Eton is going to consider *seriatim* the Commissioners' recommendations, and to reform itself, where there seemed a way open, that we may at least hear of a speedy resolution on the part of the authorities of Eton College henceforth to avail themselves of the best books in classical literature which they can obtain, and not to feed any longer the youthful mind upon the bare husks, which have been heretofore made to suffice for its needs. It is matter of marvel that those gentlemen, who gave such interesting evidence touching the badness of Eton school-books, omitted to specify one or two, which have fallen under our notice. If there are any feebler, poorer, or more unsatisfactory than one which lies before us, alas for those who are condemned to accept such books as intellectual sustenance. We allude to Cookesley's *Cæsar*, which from its editor's name and repute ought to have been good, and which, had it been edited for the world at large, and not for Eton College, no doubt, would have been good. As it is, it is chiefly worth notice as a specimen of Eton school-books *anno Domini* 1861-4. Like its fellows, it has its notes at the end of the volume, a practice intended probably to defeat the practice, which idle boys have, of construing at sight, trusting for aid to convenient footnotes. But, when notes are relegated to the end of a volume, they surely ought to be worth turning to. Whereas, here, except so far as relates to geographical matters, and information about *Cæsar's* campaigns from Merivale's history, we have failed to find any notes which an intelligent school-boy might not resent as an insult to his understanding. If we take the notes of Professor Long's *Cæsar*, we cannot fail to discover bone and muscle in them. The *Cæsar* of Chambers's Educational Course, anonymously edited, and unpretending in appearance, is really a volume which we know by experience to be as useful to young students, as it is satisfactory to their teachers. But the futility of such food for inquiring minds, as the notes of the Eton *Cæsar* supply, is such that no reader could have an idea of it without examining the book for himself. These are strong remarks, in justification of which the following average sample of the notes in general has been strung together, almost haphazard.

P. 2, line 8. *Minimè sæpe*, "Very seldom."

P. 6, ... 1. *Imperat*, "He requires a levy to be made."

P. 6, line 6. *Sibi esse in animo*, "that they desired."

P. 6, ... 8. *Ejus voluntate*, "with his consent."

P. 6, ... 25. *Castella communit*, "He strongly fortifies the towers."

P. 7, ... 20. *Esse in animo*, "That it was the intention."

P. 9, ... 22. *Consequi*, "Overtake."

P. 9, ... 25. *Ægerrime*, "With the greatest difficulty."

P. 13, ... 2. *Designari*, "Was intended."

P. 13, ... 3. *Jactari*, "Discussed," literally tossed to and fro.

P. 13, ... 6. *Eadem querit*, "He makes the same inquiry."

P. 13, ... 7. *Ipsium esse*, "Is the very man."

Now if these aids to the comprehension of *Cæsar's* language elicit from any school-boy any stronger expression of feeling than a "Thank you for nothing," it can only be because they have not been trained to expect much from the stamp of books put into their hands. Not that any one can controvert the accuracy of these "*frustilla*" of translation; but to deserve any thanks for them, Mr Cookesley ought to have done less or more. There is nought in the notes which we have quoted, which can satisfy the wants of the intelligent, nothing which does not for the lazy supersede the dictionary. Yet a note on "*minimè sæpe*" might have been serviceable, and it could not have been want of scholarship which prompted the editor to be content with the bare English, "*very seldom*," when he might have illustrated the use of adverbs accompanying adverbs to heighten their force, by one or two such examples, as that in *Plat. Mil. Gl. I.*, 1, 24, "*Insanè bene*." Why, again, could not Mr Cookesley have illustrated the construction of "*imperat*" in the second note we have quoted? Mr Long, in dealing with the peculiar construction involved, has not disdained to do so, well and ably. In the case of the other ten notes which we have cited, the youthful reader will be found to confess that he is in the position of the fair Sophia to the mythical Lord Bateman, "neither the better nor the worse for them." We might overlook this bareness, indeed, if within the range taken above real difficulties, as they occur, were noticed and discussed. But this is not the case. No notice is taken of the repetition in the relative clause of the noun, which is the antecedent, so common in *Cæsar*, e.g., "*duo itinera, quibus itineribus*," *I. vi.*, "*diem dicunt, quâ die*," *ibid.*, and "*legatos, cujus legationis*," in the next chapter. In *I. v.*, "*Domum seditionis spe sublatâ*," affords an occasion of pointing out a rare use of an accusative after a

noun derived from a verb of motion. But this is passed over in silence by Mr Cookesley, as are the constant instances of the last place in a sentence being the emphatic place, *e. g.*, I. vii., "*Aliud iter habebant nullum*," other road had they none (see King's Grammar, § 1466. Yet the observation of these nice points makes the difference between accurate and inaccurate scholarship; and the explanation of them is far more calculated than mere bald, ordinary bits of construing, to render a school-book adequate to its purpose.

"If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing well." To the neglect of this trite precept is perhaps ascribable the failure of nine-tenths of candidates for matriculation to write a decent piece of Latin prose. Of course it may be pleaded that this school-book is intended for only lower forms. But it is by no means clear that Cæsar is so easy, as to be susceptible of perfunctory editing. Professor Long hits the exact truth, when in the preface to his edition he says, that "the long sentences in Cæsar are not always easy to a scholar; and there are some passages where the right interpretation is doubtful, and still more, where, though the meaning is clear, it is very hard to render it in English. Cæsar then, though he may be read by boys, if they are well taught, is also a book which contains matter enough to employ the best scholars." Mr Cookesley's estimate seems to be very far other, if we take his general execution of his task into consideration. The space which he might bestow on real difficulties is filled up with off-hand "construes," and hasty ill-considered explanations. Take that on the word "*Vergobretum*" in the 16th chapter of the first book. He has said something in his note about the name and office, but a comparison with Merivale's *Hist. Rom. Emp.* I. p. 281, will shew that he might have said more, with advantage. Instead of which he runs off into an insane remark on the word "*necis*" in the passage, which

is as follows: "*Quem Vergobretum appellant Ædui, qui creatur annuus, et vitæ necisque in suos potestatem habet.*" "*Necis*," he says, only means a violent death. Had the word "*mortis*" been here used, it would have signified that the "*Vergobret* had the power of appointing the hour of any Æduan's death in the course of nature, not by putting him to death."

Surely no boy, however young, however unversed in Latin, need be told the truism, which is conveyed so oracularly. Numberless other irrelevancies might be noticed, were it not that our aim is not to decry a particular book, but a faulty system. The only sound principle of providing school-books for the use of Eton, or any other public school, must surely be to hunt throughout the market for the very best edition, of reasonable bulk, of each classical author as it is needed. We could name several cheap classics, which are better and more serviceable for school purposes than larger and more pretentious volumes, costing thrice as much. And much to their credit, Harrow, and some other public schools seem to select their books on this principle. But it is to be feared that, unless Eton shakes off the trammels which fetter it to a set of poorly edited books, of which the publisher has endless remainders on hand, there may still continue to be a demand for feeble, unsatisfactory editions, on the part of that large class the "*imitatores, servum pecus*," who mould their system upon Eton's pattern. It is devoutly to be hoped that one of the results of the Public School Commission may be the abandonment, through the good sense and free choice of the masters at Eton, of a system which gives employment to under masters, past and present, and to a single publisher, but which seems to have no severity against slovenly editing; and, by consequence, the adoption of the best and freest market for the purchase of good and useful school editions.



CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATION OF GIRLS.



REFERRED in our April number to the examination of girls which had taken place in London last year, in connection with the Cambridge Local Examinations. An interesting report, giving in detail the results of that examination,

has just been published. This report confirms very remarkably the opinions regarding the imperfections of female education, generally held by those best acquainted with the subject. It shews very clearly, at the same time, how necessary it is that female education should be subjected to some such

test as this, and how useful such a test may be made, when judiciously applied, both as a means of discovering and proving incontestably the weak points in the system, and as a stimulus to greater exertion in all the departments of it.

The most striking failures have been made in Arithmetic, and that in its higher branches. Of 43 junior candidates who were examined, 8 failed in this subject; of 41 seniors, 34 failed in it. In other words, every senior who failed in the preliminary subjects, failed in arithmetic. This is a significant fact. For arithmetic is almost the only disciplinary subject in which they were examined, —the only subject which required intellect, as distinguished from mere memory. That this was the cause of the failures is borne out by the remarks of the examiner, who says :—

"I observed that the girls knew but little of what I may call the inside of the subject. Some of them knew the different common processes of the ordinary rules of arithmetic, but I very rarely met with any knowledge of the meaning or reason of the arrangement observed in those processes. This clearly is a defect of teaching. If the girls had been taught anything of the kind, there would have been some attempt to answer questions in this, as I think, very important part of the subject. And I observed any such attempt but very seldom among the girls whose papers I examined—certainly in not more than six out of the whole number of seniors and juniors."

The only linguistic studies in which they were examined, which might be made instruments of training, were French and German; but these are studied by ladies as accomplishments, and the success achieved in them is as likely to be due to the prominence which they hold in the course of study, as to intellectual power displayed in connection with them. It is remarkable, too, considering the extent to which the practice of Music enters into female education, that there were only five candidates (three juniors and two seniors) who offered themselves in the theory of music. It is still more remarkable that of the three juniors, all failed; of the two seniors, only one was successful. In Drawing, too, another "staple" branch, three-fourths of the juniors, and more than half of the seniors, failed.

All this confirms the impression that female education is more showy than substantial, and that not only in regard to the subjects to which most time and care are given, but in regard to the kind of attainment which is reached in showy subjects.

It is at the same time satisfactory to find that in English Grammar and Analysis "the girls

acquitted themselves extremely well;" and that in English History the candidates passed, on the whole, "a very creditable examination," the examiner in the latter subject adding that, having looked over their papers immediately after those of the boys, his "impression was by comparison favourable to the girls."

Miss Davies, the Honorary Secretary, to whose persevering efforts we owe this important movement, urges, in regard to arithmetic, that "probably it is to the insufficiency of the time spent on the subject, more than to any other cause, that the failures ought to be attributed, and this is accounted for by the absence of a demand for arithmetic on the part of society generally. The distribution of hours among the various subjects of instruction is not altogether under the control of the head of the school. Most parents expect proficiency in some things, and are indifferent about others; and the teacher, in making her arrangements, must consider the wishes of the majority."

There is no doubt much reason in this; and the creating of "a demand" for arithmetic, and for a higher style of teaching in other subjects, by such examinations as these, is the best remedy that could be devised for the evil. Miss Davies's general conclusions are to the following effect :—

"The want of an external standard could scarcely have been more conclusively shewn than by this experiment. It appears that in English composition the work of the girls was creditable. This might have been expected, inasmuch as to be able to write a fairly good letter is an accomplishment required of a girl, and of which almost anybody can judge. But in arithmetic deficiency passes unnoticed, and consequently it gives place to other studies, in which diligence brings more reward. There is no reason to suppose that the girls who failed in this examination came below the ordinary standard; on the contrary, it is likely that they were rather above the average level of attainment. The somewhat severe strictures of the examiner simply prove how much lower that level is than it ought to be, and may be, under an improved system.

"In order to secure that the less showy branches of education shall receive their due share of time and attention, it seems to be necessary that the teachers be sustained by some external agency, which shall at once test and attest the soundness of their work."

We subjoin a table shewing the number of candidates who passed and failed in the several optional subjects :—

JUNIORS.						SENIORS.							
Religious Knowledge.	English.	French.	German.	Drawing.	Music.	Religious Knowledge.	English History.	Milton.	Geography.	French.	German.	Drawing.	Music.
P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.	P. F.
23 5	29 11	34 5	5 0	3 9	0 3	28 10	32 6	9 3	16 12	34 5	7 0	6 7	1 2

P. stands for Passed ; F. for Failed.

INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.*

IN an able, temperate, and well-timed pamphlet, the Head Master of King Edward's School, Louth, calls attention to several weak points in the Indian Civil Service Examinations.

It will be remembered that, some time ago, complaints came from India, to the effect that "the civil servants as at present selected, are in too many instances deficient in that gentlemanly bearing, that knowledge of human nature, and that physical energy, which are so desirable in such a station." As a remedy, Sir C. Trevelyan suggested that successful candidates, after passing their first examination, should be required to spend two years at either Oxford or Cambridge. He hoped that the expense which this implied would deter the poorer classes from entering the lists, and that, while there would still be competition, it would be limited practically to the upper classes.

Mr Hodgkinson is of opinion that the end would be better attained by altering the conditions of the examination. At present they are such, from their regulations as to age, as practically to exclude university men; and such, from their diffusiveness as to attainment, as practically to select inferior men. On the first point, he explains:—

"According to present arrangements the examination is held in June or July, and candidates must be above 18 years of age and under 22 on the 1st of May next preceding. A selected candidate in this examination is required to pass the second examination in the year following, under pain of forfeiting what he has already attained. Such a regulation can hardly fail in some measure to discourage the supply of candidates from the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. What

follows is based upon the Cambridge course; but it is presumed that it will in the main apply to Oxford also.

"Students who aim at honours usually commence their residence in the October term, at an average age little short of 19. They compete for mathematical honours in the January, and for classical honours in the February next after the completion of their third year of residence. They are therefore superannuated for the competitive Indian examination next following the close of their university career. Should they compete in that which falls in their third year, since selected candidates are now compelled to pass the second examination at the end of a year from the first, they will have their attention divided during their last year at college between study for academical honours and preparation for the second Indian examination which deals entirely with special subjects. This, again, is tantamount to exclusion, for so to divide the attention is a course which could not with any prudence be adopted. To compete at a still earlier stage of residence still more mutilates the university career; since, not only must the second extra examination be passed at the end of a year from the first, but India must be reached within six months or less after that.

"It is clear, therefore, that a Cambridge man cannot devote himself to the Indian Civil Service without either foregoing the honours offered by his university, or venturing to compete for them on the most disadvantageous terms."

In regard to the second point, Mr Hodgkinson has carefully tabulated the results of the last four examinations. We advise every one interested in this important question to get the pamphlet and examine these instructive tables for himself. He cannot fail to accept the conclusions which Mr Hodgkinson draws from them. These are chiefly two; first, that the plan of the examina-

* *Civil Service of India.—An Analysis of the last Four Examinations, with Remarks and Suggestions.* By the Rev. Geo. C. Hodgkinson, M.A., Head Master of King Edward's School, Louth; late Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. London: Longmans, 1884.

tion gives too little value to such disciplinary studies as classics and mathematics; second, that it gives value to mediocrity in a number of departments rather than to excellence in a few. On a comparison of the average marks obtained by successful candidates in each department, we find that mathematics stand lowest, reaching, over the four years, only 24 per cent., while in English, 38 per cent. is attained; and in other departments the average is still higher. Again, comparing the number of competitors in each department, mathematics, on the average of four years as before, is taken by only 27 per cent., while English is taken by all, Italian by 33, and moral science by 57, per cent. This is partly owing, doubtless, to the exceedingly and exceptionably high standard in mathematics; but if this be so, surely a higher value should be attached to the subject. This, however, is not the case; for though the maximum is high, the department embraces four papers, a larger number than on any other subject. An inferior candidate may make up for his poor mathematics by throwing his strength into other subjects, such as Sanscrit and Arabic, in which high scores are to be gained by a very elementary knowledge. And in point of fact, the highest candidate in the last examination who scored in mathematics stood twenty-third on the list. On this serious flaw in the system, Mr Hodgkinson thus remarks:—

"It is a peculiar feature of this miscellaneous examination that a candidate may send up answers, if he pleases, in every one of the twelve columns. Table I. shews the extent to which advantage is taken of this liberty, which would be less objectionable under the pressure of a higher minimum, but which with any that could be adopted must be an encouragement to diffuse reading rather than concentrated effort, and must have the tendency to cover surface at the expense of vigour. With the minimum now fixed, it becomes simply a means, in the lower part of the list, of conferring success upon an accumulation of smatterings, and withholding it from more solid information in fewer subjects. The tables also shew that the practice of taking in a large number of subjects is year by year on the increase. A further analysis reveals that this increase is the greatest among candidates in the lower portion of the list. The method of examination is producing its legitimate result, inducing the candidates of smaller intellectual capital to extend unduly their sphere of husbandry. The per centage of candidates who scored in more than six columns increased from 50 in 1861 to 56 in 1862, and to 65 in 1863. The per centage who took in more

than six columns would of course be higher still."

So long as a candidate's place depends upon the total number of marks he obtains, there is a direct temptation held out to him to attempt as many subjects as possible. There is here an obvious premium upon "cramming." The candidate who can scrape together a sufficiency of smatterings to pass in eight subjects thus gains a higher place than another who shews a profound knowledge of only three or four. Yet there can be no doubt as to the superiority of the latter in all that fits a man for the public service. The serious evils resulting from this system are very clearly exhibited in Mr Hodgkinson's third table, in which he compares the places assigned to candidates according to their gross values, with the order in which they would stand according to the per-centages obtained. Thus we find that the 1st and 2d men would be transposed. The 4th man would stand 9th; the 10th would be 26th; the 13th would be 41st; and the 49th man, who was placed so low because he had attempted only four subjects, would, according to his per-centage, be promoted to the 6th place. Several men who, by their totals, are far below the bar of success, would, according to their averages, stand considerably above it. Thus the 75th and 77th men on the one plan would be respectively 25th and 27th on the other. We conclude with Mr Hodgkinson's summary of his remarks and suggestions.

"To sum up,—the competitive system here discussed is on its probation. If it does not satisfy the hopes which some entertained of it, it is to its amendment, not to its abandonment, that attention is to be directed. Under the old system, ability went for too little; under the new, Government is pledged to accept the tender of certain marks—and these too often a doubtful guarantee of superior ability—however unmistakably unfitness in other respects may be stamped upon the candidate who presents them. It is clearly the interest of the Service to attract the best candidates, and from them to make the best selection. It is submitted, that the present regulations effect neither of these objects. The limitation as to age tends to exclude candidates from the ancient universities, and the nature of the examination to discourage both them, and also those from the public schools.

"On the other hand, the examination is so constituted as not to give genuine merit its due place: and an appeal from the mere aggregate of marks to their detail shews that the best selection is not made. Cramming is directly encouraged, and true education suffers, when it might be so much benefited.

"It seems to be questionable, whether under any circumstances it is wise to allow an unlimited number of the prescribed subjects to be taken in; and with a minimum of only one-sixth such liberty appears to be certainly and highly objectionable. Remedial measures are to be looked for either in restricting each candidate to a certain number of subjects, or in raising the minimum, or in a combination of the two.

"The subjects might be grouped thus :

	Columns.	Papers.
A. English	2	4
B. Classics	2	6
C. Modern languages of Europe	3	6
Mathematics	1	4
D. { Natural Science	1	2
Moral science (with logic)	1	2
E. Oriental languages	2	4

and each candidate be limited to four out of the five groups, with further limitations in each group, one of which should be not to allow scoring in

groups A, B, and C, for mere facts of history and literature, without a fair knowledge of the language. The desirable limitations would be facilitated by attaching the minimum to *each paper* rather than to the whole subject or group, which arrangement would have an advantage of its own in the case of mathematics.

"It will be seen that in the last year's examination there are no less than seven candidates on the successful list, who failed in English composition.

"It is a grave question, whether the attainment of a certain standard in this department should not be made a condition indispensable to success.

"It is further to be noted that there is nothing to prevent the selection of candidates utterly ignorant of arithmetic. The more any one considers the nature of the offices which many civil servants are called upon to fill in connection with the Indian revenues, the graver will this defect appear to be."



Correspondence.

THE REPORT ON THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

SIR,—Before the letters of "Paterfamilias" appeared in the *Cornhill Magazine*, and Sir John Coleridge's *Thoughts on Eton* were published, it was well known to many how much the public school system needed investigation. The enemies of these great educational institutions could point to many a glaring evil, whilst their truest friends must often have mourned in heart over defects which they felt themselves powerless to remove. Some of the too evident maladies seemed to arise from age; others were as plainly the results of trifling with the constitution, or of neglecting, till too late, symptoms of obstruction or want of vital energy. At length a consultation of eminent physicians was agreed upon, and the results of their diagnosis have been given to all interested in the case. Some of the most prominent points in the report have already been noticed in the pages of *The Museum*, and future comments on others have been promised. It is therefore unnecessary to enter into details on this part of the subject.

There is, however, urgent need to guard against the danger of the great labour and painstaking of the commissioners being thrown away. All the time and trouble they have spent will be almost useless, unless action be taken on their suggestions. This will be done only when the feelings of the

classes interested in the matter are roused to such a degree as to command attention and submission from the governing bodies of the public schools. Efforts will assuredly not be wanting on the part of some to cause things to run still in the old grooves, and the strongholds of conservatism will prove difficult of reduction.

Symptoms of resistance shewed themselves very prominently so soon as it was proposed to apply a practical test of the efficiency of the present state of affairs. The commissioners speak of the "uniform courtesy with which their inquiries in every quarter have been met," and "the general readiness which has been shewn to afford them full and minute information." It will be found, however, that when they wished to put to the proof the average results of public school teaching, a most determined opposition was manifested on the part of the head masters, and information had to be sought elsewhere. Now, this is much as if, when a man is suffering from a serious chronic disease, he is at last, notwithstanding great reluctance, obliged by his friends to allow a medical consultation on his case. The distinguished physicians arrive, and with "courtesy" are requested by the patient to take chairs around him. Their inquiries as to the nature of the soil on which the house is built, the completeness of the sanitary arrangements, the ordinary mode of life of the household, &c., are

answered with "general readiness," but immediately the proposition is made that the state of the patient's pulse should be examined, not only an evident impatience, but a determined opposition is shewn to this most necessary proceeding. If any reason is proffered for the strange deviation from "uniform courtesy" and "general readiness," some such excuse is made as that the patient is excited by the visit and investigation of the doctors, and therefore his pulse will give no safe indication, nor even any true idea, of the state of the circulation; or perhaps the objection is founded on the alleged fact, that the present number of beats per minute, the hardness or threadiness or intermittent nature of the cardiac and arterial action, will afford no proof that a better condition does not usually and uniformly exist. So inquiries have to be made of wife and mother, sons and daughters, on this important point, and, much to the sick man's disgust, a deplorable state of affairs is at length discovered.

Now this most unmistakeably betokens danger to the acceptance of the diagnosis arrived at, and the carrying out of remedial measures in the proper quarter.

It will be in the remembrance of many, that when "Paterfamilias" laid open Eton abuses, the cudgels of discussion were taken up, not by the provost, not by the fellows, not by the head-master, but by one or more of the assistant masters, of course not without the aid of the superiors. Probably the great men considered it *infra dig.* to notice the statements of an anonymous critic, but were not unwilling to have their cause defended by a clever subordinate. At the same time it was no doubt determined to go on in "the good old ways." A repetition of this course we strongly deprecate. By all means let there be discussion; but this time, if answers are made to the Report of the Commissioners, let the most responsible individuals of each public school give the reply, and above all let there be a thoroughly honest determination on the part of all not to adhere to antiquated measures because they are antiquated, or because they are most easy and most profitable. Those who undertake, or at least assume they have to undertake, the unspeakably important office of training the *élite* of the world's youth, should be above resisting, on any but the highest grounds, conclusions arrived at, and suggestions offered, by gentlemen who, being well qualified for the work, and looking with a loving interest on the subjects of their investigation, have in honesty and with the sincerest desire for usefulness, gone through their unenviable toil.

As a matter of fact, of course, it will not be expected that those who have grown old under the ancient régime, and who have no liking for modern innovations, not to say improvements, will surrender their traditional ideas, or willingly introduce what will be almost universally called reforms. But

from the young men engaged at the head of public schools, a different line of conduct is expected by the country. They are sufficiently of this generation, and enough acquainted with the enormous strides made recently in general education, to feel that something must be done. Let them honestly and fearlessly come forward to do their part in whatever will raise the character of public school work. It may be that with them some few veterans will stand forth, acknowledging themselves convinced of past deficiencies and failures, and determined to take the lead in a new campaign. All thanks will be due to them from thousands now living; and if they have any ambition to live for posterity, they may rejoice in the consciousness that, through their present exertions, generations yet unborn will be the happier and the wiser.—Yours, &c. H.

CERTIFICATES TO SCHOLARS UNDER THE REVISED CODE

SIR,—In proposing that scholars who pass the various standards under the Revised Code should receive certificates to that effect, I may be allowed to make a few remarks to explain what I mean, and to indicate what I consider the bearings of the subject.

The certificate would assert that A.B. had passed such and such a standard in the three branches, or some of them. It might also state how often he had been present during the year, with any notice of other matters which might be deemed necessary. The practical value of such certificates might not be very great to begin with, but it might increase. In reference to certificates of middle class examinations, it has been stated that many bankers and others who had been spoken to concerning the matter, declared that, other things being equal, in choosing clerks, &c., they would give the preference to those who had such certificates. In the same manner, tradesmen might give the preference to those who had certificates of the highest standard. This would be a strong inducement for parents to keep their children regularly at school, and to prevent them from taking them away previous to the Inspector's visit.

But were Parliament to take up the matter, it might make it go far to solve the problem of compulsory education; it might declare it unlawful to employ any child for hire who had not passed the fourth standard; or to employ any child more than half time who had not passed the sixth standard; exceptions to the rule to be specially dealt with. This would give some definiteness to the words "able to read and write," and afford a powerful motive for parents to attend to the education of their children, and perhaps prove a more effective

plan for attaining the end desired than a formal compulsory system.

On the other hand, the granting of such certificates would involve the teacher in extra trouble;

and while parents whose children passed might be gratified, those whose children failed might in many cases blame the teacher unjustly.—I am, yours, &c.,

A FIFESHIRE TEACHER.

Notices of Books.

Principia Latina, Part IV. An Introduction to Latin Prose Composition, containing a systematic course of Exercises on the Syntax, with the Principal Rules of Syntax, Explanations of Synonyms, and an English-Latin Vocabulary to the Exercises. For the use of the lower and middle forms in Public and Private Schools. By WILLIAM SMITH, LL.D., Editor of the Classical and Latin Dictionaries. London: Murray. 1864.

Dr Smith's title gives a pretty accurate idea of the nature of his work. The new feature in it is the collection and explanation of synonyms, a portion of the book which is executed with great care and success. Dr Smith is not, however, always consistent with himself. Thus he tells us that *amnis* is especially a poetical word, and yet in a subsequent part he gives *Padus amnis* as one of his own illustrations. In fact, Dr Smith does not seem to have determined for himself what exactly a book on Latin prose composition should contain, and therefore he seems to have proceeded with his work without definite principles. The portion of a grammar, for instance, devoted to syntax is intended to explain all the constructions which occur in the classics, including many irregularities which are not to be imitated by the pupil. The syntax of a book of Latin prose composition should give only those constructions which are to be imitated, and, if possible, all such constructions. Now Dr Smith has noticed many irregularities, and he has omitted to take notice of some important parts of syntax, such as the mode of treating an adjective attributively agreeing with several nouns. Again, a book of Latin prose composition should draw its illustrations exclusively from the best Latin prose writers. But Dr Smith quotes freely from Virgil and Horace, Plautus, Eutropius and Cornelius Nepos, as well as from Cicero and Cæsar.

Dr Smith would have done well in some cases to have consulted his own dictionary; for we find within two pages two such supines as *licitum* and *renutum* set down as classical.

The rules are characterised by great clearness, and are easily understood. The arrangement of the materials is admirable; and the exercises are well adapted to indoctrinate the pupil in the knowledge of syntax.

A First Greek Course, containing Delectus, Exercise-Book, and Vocabularies. Adapted to the Greek Grammar of Dr GEORGE CURTIUS, Professor in the University of Leipzig. For the use of the lower forms in Public and Private Schools. London: Murray. 1864.

Dr Smith informs us in his "Notice," or Preface, that this work is a "reprint and translation of the first part of Dr Schenkl's 'Griechisches Elementarbuch,' which was drawn up to accompany Dr Curtius's Greek Grammar." He adds, as might be expected, "that it is unquestionably the best work of the kind that has yet appeared." Some may doubt whether Dr Smith is right in his absolute preference of Dr Schenkl's work to all others, but there can be no doubt that it is a really good book. The chief difficulty in such a work is to make the sentences selected adequately illustrate the various forms of inflection, and at the same time be interesting to the pupil and easily comprehensible. Dr Schenkl's book fulfils these conditions. Dr Smith, or his coadjutor, has adapted it for English use by compiling a vocabulary on the principle already followed out in Allen's edition of a similar work, Kühner's *Delectus*. The *First Greek Course* is got up with great care, and is on the whole very accurate. Occasionally in the vocabulary there seems to be some arbitrariness of procedure; for in the conjugation of some verbs the perfect is given and in others of equal importance it is omitted. Occasionally, too, the best forms are not given. Thus, for instance, the future middle of ἡρράμας is set down, but the more usual form, the future passive, is not mentioned. Dr Smith's *First Course* deals only with the accident. It is by far the best *First Course* which those can use who are taught Curtius's Greek Grammar. But it is not a book, like Jacobs's *Elementary Greek Book*, or Dr Bryce's *Greek Reader*, which will suit any grammar.

The Oration of Demosthenes against the Law of Leptines. With English Notes and a Translation of Wolf's Prolegomena. Edited by the Rev. B. W. BEATSON, M.A., Fellow of Pembroke College, Cambridge. Cambridge and London. 1864.

Mr Beatson does not inform us in his "Advertisement" for what class of readers he intended this

edition of one of the most famous speeches of Demosthenes; and we confess that our powers of divination are utterly at fault in this matter. The *Prolegomena* of Wolf and his notes on the speech are thoroughly scholarly. They abound in learned disquisition and in quotations from authors, many of whom are unknown even to students at a university. They can be read with profit therefore only by those who have made at least considerable progress in Greek. But what can be the use of translating a piece of well written and easily read Latin for the benefit of such? We question very much whether a good scholar would not find Wolf's Latin decidedly more intelligible than Mr Beatson's English.

On the other hand, Mr Beatson, in addition to translating many of Wolf's notes, has supplied a considerable number of his own. These notes appear to us to be written on the supposition that the student of this edition of Demosthenes does not know even the elements of Greek Grammar. The simplest grammatical facts are laid down as if they were novelties; and they are often laid down inaccurately. We shall give two or three instances. If the reader turns to any good Greek Grammar, he will find the force of the perfect carefully defined. We take up Donaldson's Greek Grammar, because it happens to be advertised at the commencement of this edition of the Leptinean Speech, and in two of the few instances which he gives, a present participle is joined with a perfect tense. Mr Beatson has this note on *ῥεδαύματα* (p. 194): "The connection of this tense with *δαυμάζων* may surprise some; but the proper force of the perfect is to combine past and present time, so that *ῥεδαύματα* is, 'I have wondered, and still wonder.'" And for farther information on this point he refers his readers, not to any well known grammar, nor any well known grammatical commentator, but to a note of Clarke on a line in the first book of the *Iliad*.

Here is another specimen of a grammatical note: "*ὤς* for *ῥῥός* is attic, and is used only when the accusative follows; nor then, unless the sense is that of motion towards a person or persons." Here is another: "*σχωρεῖν*; the neuter of the participle retains the accent on the same syllable as that on which the masculine has it. Hence the neuter in *οὖν* of a contracted participle is circumflexed, *σχωρίον* passing into *σχωρεῖν*, as it regularly should." The book abounds in such grammatical wisdom. The errors to which we alluded above are generally such as a man makes who is much in the habit of teaching pupils to write Greek. One specimen will suffice: "Initial *ᾶν*, corresponding to *ἰάν*, and admitting no mood but the subjunctive, must be carefully distinguished from *ᾶν*, that cannot begin a clause, and that admits of every mood but the imperative." If Mr Beatson will consult such a common work as Liddel and Scott's *Lexicon*, he will

find that *ἰάν* is occasionally joined with the optative and with the indicative; and if editors had always adhered to the readings of MSS., the instances would be found to be more numerous than is supposed.

The book is carefully and beautifully printed, and Mr Beatson shews that he understands and appreciates his author. He is inclined to be closely literal in his translating. He is generally accurate. He has taken no notice of Westermann's admirable school-edition of the oration, from which he might have derived some very useful hints, and some better readings.

Instantaneous French Exercises, Easy, Conversational, Imitative. By ACHILLE ALBITES, LL.B., Paris, French Master in the Birmingham and Edgbaston Proprietary School. A new edition. London: Longmans 1863. Pp. 64.

This book, which consists of English exercises, to be turned into French at sight, abounds with bad English, and bears a false pretence on the title-page.

The bad English is of many kinds, as Ex. 118, "Where was situated the Bastille?" a faulty collocation for, *Where was the Bastille situated?* Ex. 119, "There are seen curious machinery," a false concord for *curious machinery is seen there*; and "There was formerly a person," a false translation of *Il y avait là*, for *there was formerly a person there*; Ex. 120, "Let us listen well," a Gallicism for *Let us listen attentively*; and so on *ad infinitum*.

Here is an extract deserving the pillory for another reason: "Père la Chaise was a Jesuit. The doctrine of the Jesuits says, that the soul should be under the hand of the priest as a corpse! The Jesuits and the dead! Curious coincidence! What do you think of that? Liberty for ever!" No, M. Albitès; that makes us think of nothing but your own bad taste.

In the title-page, the following miraculous properties are ascribed to these exercises: "It is not necessary to have written ANY of the preceding ones, and no previous knowledge is required." On turning the leaf, however, one of these miracles is exploded; no previous knowledge is required, except "the study of the corresponding page," in *How to speak French*, another work by the same author, four times as big as this one, *i.e.*, in order to write one page of these exercises, the pupil must master four pages of another work, by way of preparation,—a pretty considerable requirement, in the way of previous knowledge. The other miracle is explained by the absence of repetition in the exercises, and the fulness of the information given regarding each of them, in *How to speak French*; whereby students really at different stages can be taught together, and a new pupil, who knows nothing, or nearly nothing may join a progressing class. These are M. Albitès own words, in which, without knowing it, he brands

with insufficiency his system. For any class conducted so that a novice can join it, and be a match, or anything like a match for his fellows, can be progressing only as men progress on the treadmill.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Part III. Aversate-Block. May. London: Longmans. 1864.

As the publication of this valuable work proceeds, its thorough and practical character becomes more and more apparent. One of its most useful features is the attention paid to the employment of words in colloquial, and what may be called historical phrases, in a different sense from that of the words taken singly. Thus, under *Ban* we have an explanation of *Ban of the Empire*; under *Bargain* of *Into the bargain*; under *Bear*, of *bear in hand*; under *Beat*, of *beat the hoof*; under *Behaviour*, of *be upon one's behaviour*; under *Bell*, of *bell, book, and candle*, of *bear the bell*, of *shake the bells*; under *Bend*, of *bend the brow*; under *Benefit*, of *benefit of clergy*; under *Beside*, of *beside one's self*; under *Bill*, of *bill of fare*, *bill of lading*, &c.; under *Blanket*, of *wet blanket*; under *Blessed*, of *I'm blessed*, and so on throughout the work. In our last number, we confined our extracts to new words and new etymologies. We propose on this occasion to select some of the philological and grammatical explanatory notes, to which we referred at the close of our last notice. First take the following important note, under *Aversion*, on the use of prepositions in composition:—

"The rule that prepositions in composition, when followed by a noun, require that noun to be in the case which those prepositions would govern, if they stood separate from the verb and as independent parts of speech (whether good or bad for languages like the Latin and Greek), has no place in English; since in English there is but one case for a preposition to govern.

"Again, in an English sentence, the preposition which enters into composition, and which (so doing) forms a compound, may belong to a language different from that which contains the independent preposition. In the words before us, *a*, though the equivalent to *from*, is by no means the same word. Hence, even if the rule just given held good, it would be no rule at all to a person who knew nothing of Latin. *Averso*, though made up of elements equivalent to those which give *turn-from*, is by no means made up of the same. If it were, such an expression as *aversion* to would be a contradiction in terms, and a *turning-from to toil* (the actual translation of *aversion to*) would be an impossible expression. Yet it exists.

"The solution of this apparent paradox lies in the fact of *aversion* being a *relation*; and, in the expression of relations, we use the word *to*. An *aversion to toil* is a feeling hostile to, or towards, toil; an indisposition for toil.

"When we see *aversion* followed by *to*, *towards*, or *for*, we must remember that it means not only *turning-from*, but *repugnance*, *dislike*, *hostility*, &c. The same applies to other words."

What part of speech are the words *ay*, *yes*, and *no*? The question is answered in the following note upon *AY* [A. S. *gea* = *yea* :—

"As a part of speech this word belongs to the same group as *yes* and *no*; these being words of a class by themselves, and, according to the principles of the present writer, by no means adverbs, though often called so. It is submitted to the reader that the best test for ascertaining what part of speech a given word is to be considered, is to ask what place it takes in the construction of a proposition. Now the adverbs only enter into propositions in conjunction with some other term; being for this reason called by the logicians *syncategorematic*, i. e. words which can only form a term in which anything is predicated by being joined with something else. We can say *the fire burns brightly*, but not *the fire brightly*, &c.

"Now *yes* and *no* constitute not only terms but something more, i. e. whole propositions; being equivalent to *it is so*, and *it is not so*. Yet they are not independent propositions. They never stand alone. They are answers to either questions or commands. As such they imply a proposition to which they correspond. This is their characteristic. They can form propositions, but only when there is another to match them."

On the word *Be*, the conjunctive mood of *am*, we have the following exhaustive and satisfactory note:—

"As a copula this word, in the present literary language, is only used in hypothetical and secondary propositions; inasmuch as it is only used in the conjunctive mood. We say, *if I be*, *if thou be* (or *beest*), *if he be*, &c., but not *I be*, *thou beest*, *he be*; though all these expressions are to be found both in the older stages of the language, and in the provincial dialects. In German also, and in other allied dialects, it is indicative, *ich bin* = *I am*, *du bist* = *thou art*.

"The A.S. form was *beon*. In respect to its derivation and original meaning, it may be said that the root *b* is the *f* in the Latin *fi*, the *φ* in the Greek *φύω*, and the *bh* in the Sanskrit *bhāvati*; its meaning being not so much simply *be*, as *become*. In this lies the element of that conditional power which makes it conjunctive or subjunctive, rather than indicative. Things which are *becoming* or *growing into* anything have not completed the action which they suggest, but have something else to do. In this there is an element of uncertainty or contingency.

"More than this, there is an element of futurity; a fact which is illustrated by more languages than one. In A.S. *beon* = *will be*; *na*, *Hi ne beōd na cilde*, *sodlice*, *on domesdage ac beod swa micel menn swa swa hi wighton beōn gif hi full*, *weoxon on gewunlice ylde*. = *They will not be children, forsooth, on Domesday, but will be as much (so muckle) men as they might be if they were all grown (waxen) in customary age.*—Ælfric's Homilies.

"The same root occurs in the Sarmatian tongues with the same power as *emi* = *I am*; *būsu* = *I shall be*, Lithuanic. *Esnu* = *I am*; *bushu* = *I shall be*, Livonian. *Jem* = *I am*; *bud.* = *I shall be*, Slavonic. *Gsem* = *I am*; *budu* = *I shall be*, Bohemian: this proving, not that there is in Anglo-Saxon a future tense (or form), but that the word *beō* has a future sense."

These extracts will show our readers that the method of this Dictionary is as rational as it is

practical. It is a work which teachers may consult with the greatest advantage when they wish to know not only the *what*, but the *why*, of the usages of English speech. Some of these explanations are, no doubt, to be found in Dr Latham's other works: but it is an immense advantage to have them brought under the alphabetical arrangement of a dictionary.

Notes on Wild Flowers. By A LADY. 12mo, pp. 520. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

This volume is not put forth as an introduction to botany. It simply professes to give notes on the plants which come into flower during the different months of the year. The introductory notice of the parts of a plant can be of little use to a beginner without woodcuts; and we are sorry to find in it not a few erroneous statements. Thus, underground stems and roots are confounded; bad definitions are given of stems, leaves; and numerous false spellings occur, as, *helium* for *hilum*, *oval* is *ovate*, *sagitate* for *sagittate*, &c. The authoress gives a chapter on the Linnæan system, but we desiderate much some woodcuts here to illustrate the divisions. The book is certainly not fitted for one beginning the study of botany, and does not attempt to give a philosophical view of the science. It does not therefore come under the category of works fitted to train the minds of youth to observe. The references to the plants are mixed with various remarks on their uses, the origin of their names, legends regarding them, and poetical allusions to them. There are, no doubt, many interesting statements given, but they are not calculated to do much in the way of botanical education. The meagre reference to the natural system at the end is of no use to a student of botany, and the attempt to make the index useful to botanists is in our opinion most unsuccessful, containing as it does numerous errors in names. Popular works should only be written by those who are thoroughly conversant with science. It is a much more difficult task to give a good popular treatise on a science than to produce one of a high scientific character. Popular treatises on science are often superficial and incorrect, because they are undertaken by those who are not competent for the task. We wish that men of science would condescend to give popular introductions, in which the true facts are stated in a style suited for the intellect and understanding of the young. It is matter of regret that popular manuals are too often drawn up by those who have no grasp of science, and are deficient in the knowledge of its philosophy. The publication now in hand may, no doubt, be perused with interest by those who know something of British plants, and who wish to know some of the gossip about them; but it cannot be looked upon as an educational book fitted to instruct the rising generation in the true principles of botany.

The Picture History of England. First Series. The House of Hanover, in 5 sheets. By W. JOHNSON. Book Depot, Horseferry Road, Westminster.

The author of these sheets is a schoolmaster of some considerable experience, who, after finding his system advantageous in the actual work of his school, and testing its efficacy, has at length determined to make it public. His experiment, therefore, will commend itself to the attention of practical men. A quotation which the author makes in his preface, from an early number of *The Museum*, appears to have suggested to him the notion which he has since embodied in his work. It is as follows:—

"A knowledge of history, in after life is very desirable, . . . nor could better service be rendered to the cause of historical instruction than by publishing a series of prints of history, accompanied with a very short description of each: correctness of costume in such prints, or good taste in the drawing, however desirable, if they can be easily obtained, are of very subordinate importance; the great matter is that the print should be striking and full enough to excite and to gratify curiosity.

"By these means a lasting association is obtained with the greatest names in history, and the most remarkable actions in their lives; while the chronological arrangement is learned at the same time, from the order of the pictures, a boy's memory being very apt to recollect the place which a favourite print holds, whether it comes towards the beginning, middle, or end, what picture comes before it, and what follows it."

Acting on this hint, Mr Johnson has produced five large coloured pictures, the treatment of which is rather symbolical than representative, and by the help of them he seeks to impress upon the memory the nature of the events themselves, and their chronological sequence. We may take, as a single illustration of his plan, the sheet devoted to the reign of Victoria. There is first a monogram consisting of the letters E & H, and the picture of a pair of scissors about to cut the united letters in twain, to shew the separation of the crowns of England and Hanover. A Chinese, in the act of smoking opium, calls attention to the war with China, and to its cause. A portrait of Daniel O'Connell, and a picture of a frantic "Repealer," illustrate the famous Irish agitation of 1840-5. A loaf of bread typifies the Repeal of the Corn Laws, and a figure of the British lion spreading his paw over five rivers, the annexation of the Punjab. The "Papal Aggression" of 1850 is well symbolized by the figure of a pope with a tiara, holding out a cardinal's hat, while other diagrams, each very striking in its way, illustrate, respectively, the Crimean war, the Chinese difficulty, and the Sepoy insurrection.

We have seen this series of sheets in very effective use in an oral lesson, and cannot doubt that, in the hands of a judicious teacher, they may be made very

helpful in stimulating the interest of learners in historical events, and in deepening upon their minds the memory both of the facts, and of the times in which they occurred. But we think it very desirable that illustrations of this kind should be employed rather as supplements to careful and detailed lessons on history, than as substitutes for them. If a teacher, after reading with his pupils a consecutive history of a given reign, and taking pains to make them master its details, presents a sheet of this kind, and explains its symbolical meaning, the effect will probably be to give unity and coherence to the whole lesson, and to intensify the interest with which it is remembered. But if too exclusive a reliance be placed on any device of this kind for pleasing a child's eye, and exciting his curiosity, the effect produced will be, we fear, somewhat meagre and intangible, and for all purposes of intellectual education almost worthless. With this caution, we may honestly recommend teachers to obtain this series of coloured pictures, and to add them to the furniture of their schools. The attempt in this case has not been perfectly successful, and we do not think that every one of the illustrations is quite in good taste. For example, the Mutiny at the Nore is represented by a rather offensive picture of a sailor hanging by the neck at the yard-arm of a man-of-war. But, on the whole, the idea is a good one, and one which teachers generally will know how to welcome and to turn to good account.

The Edinburgh University Calendar for the Year 1864-65. Edinburgh: Maclachlan & Stewart. 1864.

The Edinburgh Calendar is this year increased very considerably in bulk, and improved very materially as to its contents. It is now well entitled to take its place alongside of the calendars of other universities, as a complete and worthy exponent of the University curriculum. It should therefore be in the hands of every student of the University. But it contains so full an account of the new constitution of the University, and so minute a description of its system of education, and of every part of its machinery, that it possesses a wider interest, and may be consulted with advantage, and with the utmost confidence in its accuracy, by educationists generally. We know no other University Calendar in which what may be distinguished as its practical and its theoretical uses are so happily combined. This publication should extend very greatly the influence and fame of the University of Edinburgh, by extending the knowledge of its sound and comprehensive system of education.

Outlines of Geography for Schools and Colleges. By WILLIAM LAWSON, Author of "Geography of the British Empire." London: Philip & Son. 1864.

We noticed, in last number, the second edition of

Mr Lawson's excellent "Geography of the British Empire," which we found to consist of three parts—1. Mathematical and Physical Geography; 2. The British Islands; 3. The Colonies. The work before us contains an introductory chapter, and five parts—1. The British Islands; 2. British Colonies; 3. Europe; 4. Asia and Africa; 5. America. On comparing the latter with the former, we find that the Introduction, and Parts 1 and 2 are simply a condensation of the author's larger work. We frequently find sentences, and sometimes paragraphs, identical, or almost identical, in both. Now, we have no right to inquire what arrangement Mr Lawson may have made with his different publishers, enabling him to adapt the material of the one to the wants of the other. But we think that, in justice to himself and to the public, Mr Lawson ought to have made some reference in either of his prefaces to the fact we have mentioned. To us, as public critics, it makes no difference that the two books are by the same author. We have this month a book sent us for review, which contains a great deal of matter that was also contained in another book sent to us for review last month. And we must characterise the proceeding as plagiarism as much as if the two works had been published by different authors, or by the same publisher. It is painful to have to refer to such a case; but the extent to which book-making is carried in these days, compels us to discharge our duty in spite of every other consideration.

We regret this all the more in the present case, that the work under notice is really an excellent book, original in plan, and full and accurate in information. "Greater prominence has been given to the description of mountains, rivers, and towns, than to other branches of geography, though these other branches have not been neglected. Thus the different countries dealt with have generally been considered under three heads:—the surface and minerals, including also remarks on the climate and natural productions; the rivers and chief towns, with the industrial pursuits of the people; the coast line and commerce." The effect of this method of treatment is to make the book very interesting and readable—a quality and a use of which few geographies can boast.

Middle-Class Atlas of General Geography. In a Series of Twenty-nine Maps. By WALTER M'LEOD, F.R.G.S., &c. London: Longmans. 1864.

In this elegant volume, Mr M'Leod has thrown together the Atlases for junior and for senior students, which we noticed in a former number, and has added such maps as were necessary to make the work complete. The maps are much improved in appearance by a harmonizing of the colours, and a deepening of the blue of the seas. Other useful features have been introduced, as will be seen from the following extract from the preface:—

"As this Atlas is specially designed for those qualifying for the Civil Service, the Army, and the University Local Examinations, particular attention has been paid to those points on which the candidates are tested—such as the coast-lines, the directions of mountain chains, the courses of rivers, and the boundaries of counties, kingdoms, &c. On the borders of each map, in the space usually left blank, the mountains, with their heights, the lengths of rivers, and the areas of the countries, are exhibited by means of lines, sections, and diagrams. Pupils will thus learn at a glance, the features of a country which it is advisable firmly to fix in the memory."

NELSON'S WALL MAPS. *The Eastern Hemisphere. The Western Hemisphere.* Third Edition. London: T. Nelson & Sons. 1864.

We are glad to find that these excellent and thoroughly useful maps have reached a third edition. This fact is a sufficient testimony to the high appreciation in which they are held by teachers. In this edition the most recent geographical discoveries are included. For example, in Africa, the sources of the Nile are carefully and accurately laid down. The size of the maps affords room for such features being embraced. They are large enough for the teaching of the geography of the four quarters in ordinary schools; Europe is the only continent for which, perhaps, a more detailed map may be required. This use of the maps is further facilitated by, not each continent, but each country being separately coloured. Each hemisphere is traversed by segments of circles, drawn from London as a centre, from which the pupil may at a glance learn the distance in English miles of any place in the world from Great Britain.

The Young Child's Atlas. By the Scottish School-book Association. Glasgow: Collins.

This small atlas contains maps of those countries which the "young child" is likely to have his attention first directed to: the hemispheres, the four quarters, the British Islands, and Palestine. As they are on a small scale, they do not contain much, but they are distinct and clearly coloured. For "the young child," this is all very well: but there are inserted opposite each map a long list of exercises thereon, which entirely destroy the elementary character of the work. Neither do the questions always tally with the map. The 29th exercise on Asia is, "Tell the capital of Ceylon—the former capital;" neither capital is marked in the map. On the map of South America the 101st question is, "What place has 29° 56' S. lat., 51° 20' W. lon.?" The place is the unimportant town of Porto Alegre, but in the map it is marked below 80° S. lat. All this is surely a gross abuse of geography, to say nothing of "the young child's" mind.

Songs for the School-Room. T. NELSON & SONS, Edinburgh and London.

Mr T. L. Hately, the editor of this pleasing little book, has a rare faculty for compiling music for children. He enters sincerely into their simple, early tastes; has a warm sympathy for their rhymes in the nursery, and the pleasures that come with an artless duet sung by child voices; the result being, that if you give him words—merry or humorous, words with a streak of pathos in them, or thoroughly joy-inspiring—he will adapt or compose, select, fit in, or compile, just the very music that is wanted. He is the most bending of musicians, and levels the blessings of his art to the most infantile comprehension. We should say that six out of every ten parents will be able, with ordinary application, to sing all that is in this book, for all that is required is knowledge of the notes, of the difference between the value of the white and the black ones, the very, very white ones, and the black ones with the hooks, and some notion of the intervals or the spaces in the ladder, which notion is got by a first lesson, and developed to perfection, or otherwise, according to practice. There is not such a thing as a modulation, unless of the very easiest sort; indeed, there are no chromatic tricks at all. Age has done nothing for youth equal to making its upbringing merry with music; and we can recommend this publication as one of the very best which an excellent teacher and a spirited publisher have placed at the disposal of all parents and schoolmasters.

Congregational Chants and Anthems: A Supplement to all Tune-Books. Being Part II. of Congregational Church Music.

Congregational Church Music. Second Supplement: Containing 20 Anthems and 35 Tunes, with new Titles and Indexes. London: Jackson, Walford, and Hodder, Paternoster Row.

The above are Supplements to "Congregational Church Music," a collection which, we are informed, has had a "large success," owing, no doubt, to its pure melodies, simple and effective harmonies, and thoroughly practical character. We think the tunes now added barely sustain the high character of the work, as regards smoothness and effectiveness of arrangement; but we have seldom met with a better selection of chants, forty-six in number, and all excellent. The anthems will be found quite within the capabilities of ordinary congregational classes, if not of congregations generally, and we believe that they will be cordially welcomed by all the churches accustomed to sing such pieces of music. One or two of the anthems are perhaps long enough for use in worship; and we question somewhat the propriety of having so many as fourteen, out of a selection of forty-four, from one composer. The words

of the anthems are also published separately for a penny, which will add greatly to the usefulness of the work. We wish it all success.

Elements of Designing on the Developing System, calculated to bring out a Taste for Order, Regularity, and Symmetry. Number 1. Form-Drawing for Junior Classes. Edinburgh: Nimmo. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1864.

The improving effect of form-drawing, or inventive designing, is known to every teacher acquainted with the continental systems of education. The books, however, hitherto published on this subject, were intended only for teachers. These elements of designing are for the pupils, and render it easy for any teacher to introduce this improving and useful branch of elementary drawing into school classes, in which it ought to be commenced as early as writing. For parents and governesses who have but a small number of children to attend to, this first number will prove an invaluable means of giving useful, entertaining, and attractive occupation, particularly if the children are allowed to use coloured chalks and paints.

This drawing-book is the result of the experience of a series of Pestalozzians, as the chief of whom may be named Friedrich Fröbel, the late author of the Kindergarten system.

If it be true, as many practical men hold, that drawing should form a part of general education, as writing has hitherto done, and no school should be considered complete in elementary instruction, if it do not include drawing, these *Elements of Designing* offer one easy way of realising so desirable an object. While they, in a short time, impart to the pupil a taste for appreciating and drawing ornaments, they open the young mind to understand the elementary notions of geometry. Nothing is of more importance to the future mechanic, artisan, engineer, architect, and artist, than a sense for beauty in ornamental forms, and a notion of geometrical relations, both of which ought to be cultivated at an early age, and can be so properly only by drawing. While these *Elements* are calculated to cultivate both in children, they make drawing accessible to all.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

The Grade Arithmetic, adapted to the Six Standards of the Revised Code. In Three Parts. Also, *The Complete Grade Arithmetic, being the Three Parts bound together, and containing 6372 Examples.* By WILLIAM DAVIS, B.A. London: Longmans. 1864.

Following the rage for adapting everything to the Revised Code, Mr Davis has issued the simpler questions in Part I. of his *Arithmetical Examples* (of which both parts have been forwarded to us) in a cheap and convenient form. Part I. contains Standards 1, 2, and 3; Part

II., Standards 4 and 5; and Part III., Standard 6. The book contains no explanations, but examples only. These, however, are numerous, varied, and good.

Practical Hints on the Preparation of Schools for Examination under the Revised Code. By the Rev. E. C. COLLARD. Fifth Edition. London: Longmans. 1864.

We have in a former number commended Mr Collard's excellent pamphlet to the attention of teachers. The fact of its having reached a fifth edition is a sufficient testimony to its useful character.

The Graduated Arithmetic. Part I. By WALTER R. T. HENDERSON, Head Master, St George's School, Morpeth. Glasgow: Hamilton. 1864.

Contains a graduated course of about fifteen hundred exercises in the four simple rules. It is divided into three stages, corresponding with Standards 1, 2, 3 of the Revised Code.

Gleig's School Series. An Elementary Treatise of Orthographic Projection and Isometrical Drawing. By W. S. BINNS. London: Longmans. 1864.

An excellent and thoroughly practical little work; progressive in its plan, and simple and apt in its illustrations.

The Standard Writing Exercise Books, for School and Home. Books IV. and V. By J. S. LAURIE. London: Murby. 1864.

These numbers of this series are adapted to Standards 4 and 5 of the Revised Code. The Handbooks contain exercises to be copied into the MS. books.

A Few Words of Explanation to the Public on the Inspiration of the Old and New Testaments, Spiritualism, and Animal Magnetism, and in Regard to the Rights, Interests, and Duties of the Laity. By A. LAYMAN. London: Burns. 1864.

Inspiration, spiritualism, and animal magnetism,—this extraordinary combination sufficiently indicates the drift of this tract. It is further shewn by a sentence in the Preface, in which we are gravely told that "the miracles of modern spiritualism tend more strongly to establish the authenticity of most of those described by the New Testament writers!" What next?

The Standard Spelling Book. Part I. By EBER L. JONES. Manchester: Heywood.

Contains "difficult words of one syllable;" but many of these words are far more difficult than polysyllables, and will not be used or met with by young pupils till a much later period than that indicated by Standard 1.

A Letter to Every One who will know his Bible, and especially to those entering God's Ministry. By A. B.A., Oxon. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

An earnest practical answer to the question, How are we to study the Bible with interest? The writer answers, With prayer, with "open eyes," and systematically, steadily, and slowly.

An Elementary Grammar of the English Language.
By E. D. HILL. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.
1864.

This Grammar is intended for boys who are preparing for the public schools. It is "elementary" only in respect of its quantity, not of its quality. In many of its features, it is as difficult as bulkier treatises,—all the more difficult from its outline character. It should be called a *short* grammar, rather than an *elementary* one. It also errs in classing passive verbs as a distinct kind, not merely as a different form of transitive verbs.

The First Book of Wordsworth's Excursion, with full Notes, and a Treatise upon the Analysis of Sentences. By the Rev. C. H. BUOMBY, M.A. London: Longmans. 1864.

An excellent book of its kind. The introductory chapter on analysis is simple and sensible,—more so than such introductions usually are. The author adopts the classification of clauses into noun, adjective, and adverbial, which we have often insisted on in these pages. He says that compound sentences may be formed by subordination; but does not shew how.

John Heywood's Senior Atlas. Manchester: Heywood. 1864.

We have failed to discover any peculiar feature in which this Atlas differs from others of similar aim. France is given only "in provinces." Some of the maps are old; e.g. Queensland is given as extending no farther north than 26° S. L. All north of that line is included in North Australia. The price is small, but the Atlas can hardly be called cheap.

The Standard Manual of Geography. Edited by JAMES S. LAURIE. London: Murby. 1864.

A well-arranged and useful Manual. The usual topographical details are supplemented by interesting descriptions of places, peoples, and the productions of countries. It is also published in four parts at twopence each.

Progressive English Reader. Fifth Book. By JAMES DOUGLAS. Edinburgh: Black. 1864.

In this book, the compiler has given prominence to stories, narratives, incidents of adventure, scenes of travel, and interesting subjects generally, rather than to abstruse and purely scientific extracts. The lessons are grouped in five sections, according to subject. The Appendix contains lists of prefixes and affixes, and exercises in spelling. This book sustains the practical and workmanlike character of the series.



Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

10. The indirect object is apt to be confounded, 1st, with the attribute to the object; 2d, with the adverbial of place or cause.

1st. To find whether a phrase is an attribute to the object, or a complement to the verb:—

Rule.—Omit the object proper, and try whether the phrase makes sense when joined immediately with the verb. *E.g.*, The doctor accused the servant of his neighbour of the theft.

Here, omitting "the servant," we cannot say "accused of his neighbour;" but we can say, "accused of the theft. Therefore "of his neighbour" is an attribute to "servant;" "of the theft" is a genitive complement.

2d. To find whether a phrase is an adverbial or a complement:—

Rule.—Omit the phrase in question, and try whether the verb makes complete sense without it. If so, the phrase is an adverbial extension; if not, the

phrase is a complement. *E.g.*, He shrank from his duty, from fear of men.

Here, we can omit the second phrase, "from fear of men," and the statement is still complete. But when we say, "He shrank, from fear of men," we feel that we must supply words to express what he shrank from. The verb + the preposition (shrank-from) is here the complete predicate. "From his duty" is a complement; "from fear of men" is an adverbial of cause. DELTA.

QUERIES.

14 In *Midsummer Night's Dream* (Act i., Scene i.) occurs the following passage:—

"Thrice blessed they that master so their blood,
To undergo such maiden pilgrimage;
But earthlier happy is the rose distill'd,
Than that, which, withering on the virgin thorn
Grows, lives, and dies, in single blessedness."

Would not the poet's meaning be plainer if we read "happier earthly," instead of "earthlier happy"?

I have looked at several editions of Shakespeare, but have met with no variation in the reading; and yet, taking the words as they stand, they do not, judging from the context, seem to convey the meaning intended.

BETA.

15. Dr Morell, in a note on the following sentence, calls the clause, "while they . . . of duty only taking heed, find pleasure by the way," an adverbial one, If so, to what is it adverbial?

"O righteous doom, that they who make
Pleasure their only end,
Ordering the whole life for its sake,
Miss that whereto they tend;
"While they who bid stern duty lead,
Content to follow, they,

Of duty only taking heed,
Find pleasure by the way."

OMEGA.

16. How should the following sentence be analysed?

"The Christian religion, once here, cannot again pass away; in one or other form it will endure through all time: as in Scripture, so also in the heart of man, is written, "The gates of hell shall not prevail against it."

OMEGA.

17. How should the following sentence be analysed?

"To prayer, repentance, and obedience due,
Though but endeavoured with sincere intent,
Mine ear shall not be slow, mine eye not shut;
And I will place within them as a guide
My umpire conscience, whom if they will hear,
Light after light, well used, they shall attain,
And to the end persisting, safe arrive."

G. G.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

4. (Solution by Plus).—

$$12 \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}}} - 12 \right\} = 5 \left\{ \frac{1}{12} - \sqrt{\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}}} \right\} \quad (I.)$$

$$\left\{ 1 + \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} \left\{ 8x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 124 \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right\} = 125 - x^2 - y^2 \quad (II.)$$

From (I.), clearing of fractions, we have—

$$\begin{aligned} x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 12x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} &= \frac{5}{144} x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{5}{12} x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ \therefore \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left\{ \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} - 12x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} &= \frac{5}{144} x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} - 12x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} \\ \therefore \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} &= \frac{5}{144} x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}, \text{ or } 12x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (a) \end{aligned}$$

From (II.) we have— $(x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}) \{ 8x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 124 \sqrt{x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}} \} = 125 - x^2 - y^2$

$$\therefore x^2 + 8x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}) + y^2 - 124 (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}} = 125$$

$$\text{i. e., } (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^3 - 124 (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}} = 125$$

$$\therefore (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^3 - 124 (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}} + 8844 = 3969$$

$$\therefore (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}} = 125 \text{ or } -1$$

$$\therefore (x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}})^{\frac{1}{2}} = 5 \text{ or } -1$$

$$\therefore x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}} = 25 \text{ or } 1 \quad (b)$$

$$\therefore \text{From (a)} \frac{5}{144} x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ or } 12x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} = 5 \text{ or } -1$$

$$\therefore x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} = 144, -\frac{144}{5}, \frac{5}{12} \text{ or } -\frac{1}{12}$$

neglecting impossible and surd roots.

$$x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm 12 \quad (c)$$

$$\text{Combining (b) and (c)} \quad x^{\frac{1}{2}} + 2x^{\frac{1}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}} = 49 \text{ or } 1$$

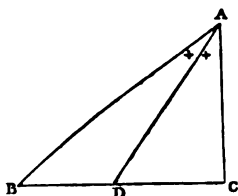
$$\therefore x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm 7 \text{ or } \pm 1$$

$$\text{Similarly, } x^{\frac{1}{2}} - y^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm 1 \text{ or } \pm 7$$

$$\therefore 2x^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm 8 \text{ and } \therefore x = \pm 64; \text{ also } 2y^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm 6 \therefore y = \pm 27$$

Solved also by *Cycloid* (Edin.), *R. + J.*, and *Vector*.

5. Solution by Vector.—



$$\sqrt{(BD + DC)^2 + AC^2} : AC :: BD : DC \quad (\text{Euc. VI. 3.})$$

$$\therefore (BD + DC)^2 + AC^2 : AC^2 :: BD^2 : DC^2$$

$$\therefore (BD + DC)^2 : AC^2 :: BD^2 - DC^2 : DC^2.$$

$$\therefore (BD + DC) (BD - DC) : DC^2$$

$$\therefore BD + DC : AC^2 :: BD - DC : DC^2$$

$$\therefore BD + DC : BD - DC :: AC^2 : DC^2$$

$$\therefore BD + DC : 2BD :: AC^2 : AC^2 + DC^2$$

i. e., $BC : 2BD :: AC^2 : AD^2$.

Solution by Cycloid (Edin.)—About the given triangle describe the circle ABEU. Produce AD to E.

Draw EF perpendicular to BC, and join BE.

Arc BE = arc EC (III. 26.) \therefore BC is bisected in F.

The triangles ACD BED and BEF are similar.

$$\therefore AC : AD :: EB : BD.$$

and $AC : AD :: FB : EB$.

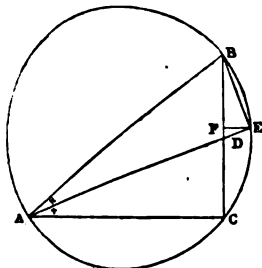
\therefore , compounding these ratios, $AC^2 : AD^2 :: FB : BD$.

:: 2FB : 2BD.

i. e., $AC^2 : AD^2 :: BC : 2 BD.$

Solved also by *R. F., Plus, R + J., W. G. C. (Whitby), S., and*

R. J. N. (London.)



6. *Solution by W. G. C. (Whitby).*—Five per cent deducted from £1200 leaves £1140—the amount to be paid at the end of seven years. In order to find what principal will produce a given amount in a given time at compound interest, we have the following general formula—

$$P = \frac{M}{(1+r)^n}$$

where P = Principal, M = amount, r = interest of £1 for one year, and n = the number of years, applying this formula to the question, we get—

$$P = \frac{1140}{1.05} 7 = \text{£}810, 8\text{s. } 6\text{d.} +$$

Solved also by *Cycloid* (Edin), *Plus*, and *A. J. U.*

[If *simple* interest is meant, we have—

£105 : £100 :: £1140 : £844, 8s. 10½d.]

QUERIES.

7. (*Proposed by Vector.*)—Euclid I. 21, says—"If from the ends of one side of a triangle there be

drawn two straight lines to a point within the triangle, these two lines shall be less than the other two sides of the triangle." Prove that it is essential to the truth of this proposition that the two lines be drawn *from the ends* of the side.

8. (Solution requested by M. A.)—The sum of the even terms of a geometrical progression of $2n$ terms $= a$, and the sum of the odd terms $= b$, What is the series?

9. (*Solution requested by Arithmos*)—Find four squares, such that their sum may be the product of two factors, one of which is the sum of three squares, and the other the sum of two.

10. (Solution requested by R. + J.)—Given, the three straight lines drawn from the angles of a triangle to bisect the opposite sides; to find the sides of the triangle.



Open Council.

[No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

QUESTION PROPOSED.—HAS GOVERNMENT BROKEN FAITH WITH THE CERTIFICATED SCHOOLMASTERS?—(CONTINUED.)

Z Y.—Whatever may be the faults of the Revised Code, and they are doubtless very many, I cannot admit the justice of the outcry that Government has broken faith with the schoolmasters. There

appears to be a diversity of opinion between A. B. and C. D. as to the point at issue. The former talks of "a disregard of *contracts* entered into;" the latter asserts that the "present question refers not

to breach of *express* agreement, but to breach of faith, i. e. of *tacit* agreement." And C. D. is right that there really is no express agreement to break. But if there be no "express agreement," what comes of A. B.'s "disregard of contracts"? Where are the contracts to disregard? C. D. comes to the rescue and tells us that it is not express agreement, but tacit agreement, or faith, that has been broken.

But what does this mean? Is no change ever to be made on the government system of education, in case it should endanger the salaries of the teachers? Sir, it is the very nature of the Privy Council system to be a temporary and changing system, and in no sense, and in no part of it, a permanent system. The agreement on the part of Government must therefore always be regarded as contingent upon the circumstances in which Government is placed. It would never do to hamper the action of Government by keeping them in constant dread of disturbing vested interests. Neither would it be wise to clog its machinery by compensations and compromises. There are many callings in which the only security for a continuance of income is a reasonable probability, dependant in great measure on con-

duct and character; and the teacher's is one of these. The Government certainly hold out the prospect of a continuance of employment and of remuneration, but not necessarily in the same form, or under the same conditions. There may be hardship to teachers in some of their alterations, but they are bound to weigh over against this the greater hardship, not to any single class, but to the whole country, in leaving things as they are. And it must always be remembered that Government did not deprive the teachers of aid, they only changed the mode of giving it. And it is certainly a good principle that a considerable share of a teacher's remuneration should depend upon the manner in which he does his work. Uncertainty and changeableness are inherent in the Government system. That may be a great fault of the system. But those who accept the system must take it with all its consequences.

The following subject is proposed for discussion in next Number:—

OUGHT THE STATE TO SUPERVISE AND SUPPORT THE EDUCATION OF THE MIDDLE CLASSES?

Education at Home.

THE EDUCATION ESTIMATES FOR 1864-5.

	ESTIMATE.	1864-5.	1863-4.
		£	£
Annual Grants remaining to be paid according to the Code of 1860:—			
Scotland, Elementary Schools for one third of year,		25,000	
Pensions,		650	
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		25,650	316,221
Annual Grants to Elementary Schools under Articles 88-93 of the Revised Code (1864):—			
England and Wales, 870,559 day scholars at 9s. 8d.,		402,888	
Scotland, two-thirds of 177,904 day scholars, at 9s. 8d.,		54,864	
Great Britain, 40,000 night Scholars, at 7s. 6d.,		15,000	
Stamps on Pupil Teachers' Agreements,		400	
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		472,887	239,146
Grants towards the Building, Enlarging, and Furnishing of School Premises in Great Britain, under Articles 22-37 of the Revised Code (1864), repeated from the Code of 1860,	45,000
Grants to 39 Training Colleges, under Articles 94-102 of the Revised Code (1864),	91,500
Administration:—See detail at p. 111.			
For Inspection,		56,480	
For Office in London,		21,487	
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		77,867	72,030
Poundage on Post Office Orders,	2,500
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		715,404	
Less, Estimated Saving under the Minutes of 19th May 1863 and 11th March 1864,	10,000
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		705,404	804,002

DETAIL OF ESTABLISHMENT.

Numbers. 1863-4. 1861-5.		Minimum	Annual Increment.	Maximum.	1864-5.	1863-4.
	Establishment (Office in London):—	£	£	£	£	£
1	1 Vice President,	2,000	2,000
1	1 Secretary,	1,500	1,500
2	2 Assistant Secretaries,	700	50	1,000	1,962	1,920
10	10 Examiners,	300	25	650	4,420	4,255
2	2 Clerks (vacancies not to be filled up).	110	15	300	575	515
48	54 Assistant Clerks,	100	5 & 10	300	8,185	7,345
1	1 Private Secretary to Vice President,	150	150
1	1 Advising Counsel,	400	400
1	1 Architect,	400	400
1	1 Accountant,	300	15	450	345	330
	Inspection:—					
60	64 Inspectors—Salaries,	200	{ 50 every 4th year. }	600	29,600	25,175
	" Allowance for Personal Expenses,	16,380	15,302
	" Reimbursement of actual cost of travelling,	6,400	6,508
	" Assistance in holding exa- minations under the Revised Code,	5,000
10	20 Inspectors' Assistants—Salaries,	100	10	250	3,050	
	" Locomotion,	1,000	
	Contingencies:—					
	For extra copying,	1,200	1,000
	Sundry Office Disbursements,	800	200
138	158	Total,			77,867	72,030

EXPENDITURE FROM EDUCATION GRANTS.

(TABLE A.)—Classified according to Object of Grant.

	For Year ended. 21st December 1863.	From 1839 to 31st December 1863.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. In augmentation of the Salaries of Certificated Schoolmasters and Mistresses,	113,662 0 6	920,546 8 6
2. In stipends of Pupil Teachers, and Gratuities to the Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses instructing them,	222,478 4 2	2,566,638 9 0
3. In Stipends to Assistant Teachers,	7,867 8 4	63,206 11 8
4. In Capitation in England and Wales,	68,851 17 9	478,747 0 2
5. In Stipends to Assistant Teachers in Night Schools,	1,448 6 1	10,034 2 4
6. In Special Allowances for Drawing,	2,057 11 8	9,897 4 8
7. In Grants to Industrial Classes in connection with Elementary Day Schools,	1,315 13 1	100,926 4 11
8. In Grants to Industrial Schools,	1,091 6 6	
9. In Pensions,	640 0 0	5,780 11 8
10. In building, enlarging, and furnishing School-houses, Elementary and Normal,	41,156 19 5	1,555,679 7 4
11. In Books, Maps, Diagrams, and Scientific Apparatus,*	...	52,520 11 2
12. In Grants to 40 separate Training Colleges,	111,966 17 1	833,630 18 7
13. In annual Subsidies to School Societies in support of Training Col- leges,	2,250 0 0	
14. Establishment—	£ s. d.	
Office in London,	18,386 7 1	68,247 8 8
Inspection,	45,507 11 5	
Contingencies:—	£ s. d.	745,184 8 8
Extra copying and sundry office disbursements,	1,418 7 9	
Poundage on Post-Office Orders,†	2,668 5 6	4,403 9 9
Pupil Teachers' Indenture Stamps,	321 16 6	
15. In Grants under the Revised Code since 30th June 1863 (in Eng- land and Wales),	83,858 2 10	83,858 2 10
In payments made from the Vote for Public Education by the Treasury in 1843, 1850, 1853, and 1854,	...	11,604 9 0
Total,	721,391 15 8	7,432,264 10 6

* Discontinued since 29th July 1861.

† The whole of the Grants under heads 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 15, and the smaller Grants under heads 8 and 11, are paid by Post-office orders.

(TABLE B.)—Classified according to Denomination of Recipients.

	For Year ended. 31st December 1863.			Compared with Year ended. 31st December 1862.						From 1839 to 31st December 1863.		
	£	s.	d.	Increase.			Decrease.			£	s.	d.
On Schools connected with—												
Church of England,	416,392	6	0	...			54,037	3	6	4,455,725	11	11
British and Foreign School Society,	70,858	18	5	...			904	7	10	658,137	8	5
On Wesleyan Schools,	36,122	12	9	...			1,922	0	11	344,235	10	8
On Roman Catholic Schools (England and Wales),	29,877	9	8	886	4	0	...			257,987	15	8
On Parochial Union Schools, —	811	6	8	...			558	6	8	76,488	1	5
Scotland { On Schools connected with—												
Established Church,	52,477	6	5	...			12	0	8	458,661	19	1
Free Church,	89,897	18	0	991	18	0	...			862,675	7	8
Episcopal Church,	4,476	18	4	...			76	16	8	88,840	8	2
On Roman Catholic Schools,	2,280	6	2	186	3	9	...			21,023	14	8
Other Schools,			189	14	10
Establishment (as in Table A.),	68,247	8	3	2,160	8	6	...			745,184	8	8
Transferred in 1857, under head of Scientific Apparatus, to account of Department of Science and Art, towards the expense of establishing the Educational Division of the Museum at Kensington,			1,500	0	0
Payments made from the Vote for Public Education by the Treasury in 1848, 1850, 1853, and 1854,			11,604	9	0
Total,	721,891	15	8	4,224	9	3	57,575	15	10	7,432,254	10	6

Dr.

BALANCE SHEET for Year ended 31st December 1863.

Ст.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
To Balance on 1st January 1868,	349,888	3	0	By Grants to Schools,	63,144	7	5
To Parliamentary Grant, 1868-64,	804,002	0	0	By Expenses of Administration and			
				Inspection	68,247	8	3
				By Balance on 31st December 1863,	482,498	7	4
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	1,153,890	8	0		1,153,890	3	0

The following results are derived from the examination of 180,005 children under the Revised Code. Each child to be qualified for examination must have attended 200 times in the preceding year. The average number of children in attendance at the 1,828 schools in which these 180,005 were examined, was 280.475.

The proportion of those presented for examination is 64 out of every 100 of this latter number.

Presented for examination under standards:—

Standard	I.	.	.	70,407	.	.	being 39 11	} per cent. of the whole number presented, viz., 180,0005.
"	II.	.	.	45,180	.	.	" 25·1	
"	III.	.	.	85,991	.	.	" 20·	
"	IV.	.	.	22,187	.	.	" 12·3	
"	V.	.	.	4,671	.	.	" 2·59	
"	VI.	.	.	1,619	.	.	" ·9	
				180,005				

Number presented under		Of whom failed in Reading.	Of whom failed in Writing.	Of whom failed in Arithmetic.
Standard I.	70,407	14,225 = 20.2 per cent.	12,445 = 17.68 per cent.	18,845 = 26.77 per cent.
" II.	45,180	4,900 = 10.85 "	8,635 = 8.05 "	11,406 = 25.25 "
" III.	35,991	2,802 = 6.4 "	5,526 = 15.35 "	6,822 = 18.95 "
" IV.	22,187	1,017 = 4.6 "	4,342 = 19.62 "	4,047 = 18.28 "
" V.	4,671	250 = 5.35 "	659 = 14.11 "	798 = 16.98 "
" VI.	1,619	96 = 5.93 "	208 = 12.85 "	267 = 16.49 "

If the children in schools under inspection are divided into six groups according to age; they stand as follows:—

Under 6 years	.	.	28.44 per cent.
Between 6 and 8 years	.	.	24.81 "
" 8 and 10 "	.	.	23.26 "
" 10 and 11 "	.	.	10.18 "
" 11 and 12 "	.	.	7.99 "
Over 12 "	.	.	10.82 "

THE SUPPRESSION OF THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS.

In the House of Commons, on May 12., Sir G. Grey moved for a select committee to be appointed to inquire into the practice of the Committee of Council on Education with respect to the reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. He stated that the House had, on the motion of Lord R. Cecil, arrived at a vote condemning Mr Lowe, who had in consequence resigned the office of vice-president of the Committee of Council on Education. That vote was arrived at, he believed, in consequence of some information circulated among honourable members, but not before the House generally. On a subsequent occasion, Mr Lowe gave an explanation, which the House considered most satisfactory; but the previous vote was still on record, and conveyed a most unfair stigma on Mr Lowe. Under these circumstances, he felt that the whole affair ought to be submitted to a most rigid investigation before a committee of the House. He deprecated the amendment of which Sir J. Pakington had given notice, the effect of which would be to swamp the real point to be investigated.

Sir J. Pakington said that the treatment of the Inspectors by the Committee of Council had been so unsatisfactory, that he should be most unwilling to do anything to prevent that matter being fully inquired into. Every one who had taken any part in the earlier steps of the education scheme must feel that the able and impartial reports of the Inspectors had been of the greatest service. But the whole constitution of the Board was so mysterious and so unpopular, that it was desirable that the Committee, having inquired into the case of the Inspectors, should extend its investigations to the constitution and proceedings of the Board of Education. He therefore proposed to add these words, "and further, to inquire into the constitution of that Committee, and how far their mode of conducting the business of the department is consistent with the due control of Parliament over the annual education grants."

Mr Bruce deprecated the extensive inquiries suggested by the right hon. baronet, and contended that, as the general proceedings of the Committee of Council were not condemned, and it had just carried into effect a most important change, known as the Revised Code, it was not desirable to institute an inquiry of the kind proposed by the amendment.

Lord R. Cecil said he should support the amendment, for it was absolutely necessary that the inquiry should be free, full, and searching. The department had been charged with compelling its Inspectors to mutilate their reports. Mr Lowe, in a speech that was perfectly satisfactory, had proved that he was not aware of this practice; but the excuse which he put forth would not exonerate Lord Granville or Mr Lingen, the permanent secretary. He held in his hand a pamphlet, published by Mr Morell, in which it was stated that, as late as November, he was called upon to revise his report, in which certain passages had been marked through at the office. Now, Mr Lowe stated that this practice had been discontinued since 1862; and without a thorough investigation, it would be impossible, not merely to find out the practice of the Council, but to ascertain who was responsible for it.

Mr Adderley believed that the practice of the Committee of Council was highly objectionable, if not unconstitutional, and that it was desirable to have a thorough inquiry into it.

The House then divided, when there voted for the amendment, 98; against it, 142—majority, 49. The original motion was therefore agreed to.

With reference to Lord R. Cecil's allusion to Mr Morell's pamphlet, Mr Lowe, on the following evening, made another personal statement, in which he directly contradicted the statement of Mr Morell, and further explained that the report referred to had not been a "General Report" but a "Special Report" on a particular school, and therefore a report to which the instructions of the office did not refer, and which did not come within the scope of the debate.

SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

THE REVISED CODE IN SCOTLAND.—On Friday, May 6, a deputation of Scotch Members of Parliament waited on Earl Granville, at the Privy Council Office, on the subject of education in Scotland. Almost every Scotch M.P. attended, and they were unanimous on the two points—1st, that a Royal Commission should be issued for inquiring into the whole question of education in Scotland; and 2d, that in Scotland the operation of the Revised Code should be suspended for one year. Sir Edward Colebrooke alone differed so far from the rest of the deputation as to say that, on the ground that what

is good for England must be good for Scotland, he did not altogether or out-and-out object to the application of the Code to Scotland; but Earl Granville was informed that Sir Edward stood alone in this opinion, and that the suspension of the Code for a year was desired by all the other Scotch members, and by almost all persons in Scotland taking interest in the matter. Earl Granville heard the statements of the deputation with great attention, and said that, though, of course, he could not decide the question himself, he would bring the wishes of the Scotch members under consideration of the Government. It is regarded as more than probable that both requests will be granted—a Royal Commission appointed, and the operation of the Code suspended.

DISMISSAL OF MR J. R. MORELL.—A "copy of all correspondence relating to the dismissal of Mr Morell from the office of Her Majesty's Roman Catholic Inspector of Schools" has been printed by order of the House of Commons. It appears that in November last, Mr James Kelly, late teacher of St David's Roman Catholic School, Cardiff, complained to the Committee of Council on Education against the conduct of Mr Morell, in the discharge of his official duties. His charges were two: first, that, in September 1861, two candidates for pupil-teachership were examined, not in Mr Morell's presence, but that he left the printed examination papers with them, having marked with pencil the questions to be answered in his absence; second, that he did not ask for, nor see the summary register. In reply, Mr Morell threw discredit on the veracity of Kelly, called him a mischievous person, referred to his bad antecedents (he having been previously suspended for misconduct), and enclosed letters from priests, asserting that Kelly was given to intemperate habits, and that his statements were a tissue of lies. In replying to the specific charges, however, Mr Morell stated, that his hurried inspection of the school, and examination of the registers, was caused by his having to catch the Bristol steamer on the same day, the 17th of September. But in his official diary, he had entered his departure from Cardiff as taking place on the 18th September. This discrepancy was made the subject of a fresh charge against him in the Council Office: Kelly's charges were thrown aside, and for this, added to other alleged irregularities, he was called upon to answer. Mr Morell would not admit that this was a false entry, or that there was any untruthfulness in his simply crediting the 18th with the extra work of the 17th. He maintained that it was the general practice of inspectors to save a day for themselves by compressing the work of two days into one: and he called in his cousin, Mr J. D. Morell, to substantiate the statement and defend the practice. With this, however, my Lords were not satisfied; and taking into account what they consider the general irregularity of Mr Morell's work, and the fact that he had been previously reprimanded,

they called upon him to resign. This he twice refused to do, and he was therefore dismissed from office.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—In the House of Commons on May 6, Mr Grant Duff called attention to the Report of the Public Schools Commission. He analysed the Report, with reference to the descriptions it gave of the present state of things, which were very unsatisfactory, and to the recommendations of the Commissioners, which he discussed, supplementing them with recommendations and suggestions of his own, and estimates of the relative value and importance of different branches of study. He noticed the subjects of discipline, of which the Commissioners reported more favourably than of the intellectual attainments of the scholars; of the buildings; of recreations in relation to health; and remarked the omission in the Report of any mention of the importance of some system of training the masters. He concluded an able speech by moving a resolution—"That the state of the higher school education in England is not satisfactory, and calls for the early attention of Her Majesty's Government." The Chancellor of the Exchequer paid a warm tribute to the laborious and valuable services of the Commissioners, to whom, he said, the Government were deeply indebted. With regard to the motion, he observed that it was premature. He defended the teachers of our public schools, and took a comprehensive view of the instruction received in the universities and public schools of England claiming for those institutions a debt of gratitude from the country. It was the intention of the Government, he said, to take the Report into consideration, with a view to legislate upon the subject. Mr Walpole recommended that the resolution should be withdrawn, after what had been said by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Sir S. Northcote, one of the Commissioners, described their course of proceeding in the inquiry, especially in the matter of discipline. The resolution was then withdrawn.

THE BURRELTON SCHOOL CASE.—Sheriff E. S. Gordon has issued an Interlocutor and Note (dated 4th May 1864) on the appeal in this case, in which he dismisses the defender's (Mr Jas. Keillor, schoolmaster) appeal, and affirms the interlocutor appealed from. The Sheriff finds that Mr Keillor's appointment was not *ad vitam aut culpam*; and that he was dismissed by a legal and competent quorum of the Trustees. Neither can he relieve the defender from the usual penalty of expenses, but reserves for future consideration the amount of modification which ought to be made of the expenses found due to the pursuers on account of costs which may have been caused by their having lost the defender's letter of acceptance and the minutes of their meetings.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—On May 18th, in the House of Lords,

the Lord Chancellor's Bill for the Endowment of the Regius Professorship of Greek in Oxford, was thrown out in the second reading, by a majority of 30. The main ground on which it was rejected was, that it proposed a dangerous remedy for a merely temporary evil. The general feeling seemed to be that the subject should be postponed till next Session.

The amended "Local Examination" Statute was read and promulgated in a Congregation held on May 12th. It was opposed, on account of the mode in which it dealt with the examination in religion, by Professor H. Smith, Mr Griffith (Secretary to the Delegacy), Professor Rawlinson, the Master of Balliol (Dr Scott), Professor Bernard, and the Warden of New College (Dr Sewell). It was supported by Dr Pusey, Professor Shirley, and Professor Burrows.

LONDON.—The annual meeting of the University of London, for the purpose of conferring degrees and awarding honours, was held at Burlington House on the 11th May, Earl Granville, as Chancellor of the University, presiding. In the course of his address, his lordship stated that, whereas in 1857, the total number of candidates for all the examinations of the University had been 439, in 1863 they had been 1020. In 1857 the candidates for matriculation had been 286; in 1863 they had been 485; and, similarly, the candidates for the B.A. degree had increased from 75 to 153—those for the M.B. degree from 43 to 104. At the first examination for the degree of Bachelor of Science, held in this year, there had been 53 candidates.

GLASGOW.—The half-yearly meeting of General

Council was held on April 27., Principal Barclay in the chair. Mr J. Mitchell laid on the table the report of the Committee on Summer Sessions. The Committee's conclusions were, that the summer session should be a separate session, and should, with the winter session, extend the academical year to eight months; that the additional session should be reckoned in the curriculum; but that summer classes, under assistant professors or class tutors, could not be expected to take the place of curriculum classes. Dr Buchanan, in supporting the report, stated that within half an hour of the meeting of Council, the Committee had received "Remarks of the Senate" on the Notes of the University Court on this subject. As no time had been allowed for considering these Remarks, the Committee suggested that their report should lie on the table till the October meeting, and be then discussed. This was unanimously agreed to. The Rev. Dr Parker gave notice of a motion for next meeting, on preliminary examinations.

APPOINTMENTS.

Rev. J. W. Dover, B.A., late scholar of Jesus College, Cambridge: to be Vice-Principal of St Mary's College, Harlow.

Rev. Dr Roberts, of Queen's College, Cambridge: to be Head Master of Thornbury Grammar School.

Rev. Charles Merivale, B.D.: to be Boyle Lecturer for 1864.

Mr T. E. Rhodes, M.A.: to be Head Master of Uttoxeter Grammar School.

Rev. H. A. G. Grindle: to be Vice-Principal of the York and Ripon Diocesan Training College.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—In a series of weighty articles, signed *Cournot*, which have been appearing in the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique*, there is one on the working of the Examination Test in France, a summary of which is subjoined, as likely to prove interesting to our readers, now that the test in question is rising in favour among ourselves.

The examination test is a complete one when applied to the dexterities which it is the main object of primary instruction to impart, viz., reading, writing, spelling, and cyphering. The only way of preparing for an examination in reading, is to learn to read, and so with the other dexterities mentioned, in reference to which there is no room for distinguishing between the teacher and the crammer.

In the *highest* departments of study, again, the examination test is notoriously defective, and accordingly not trusted alone. Whoever would be admitted physician or jurist must, besides and before

passing an examination, produce *class* tickets and certificates of diligence; in short, must prove that he has gone through a prescribed course of study in the public schools. The reason is that professional men are aware how largely chance enters into both success and failure at examinations that range over the medical or legal studies of years; they know that, however much may be demanded of examinees, the examiners must be content with comparatively little; and that, were an examination the sole test, crammers would arise, and superficiality become the order of the day. Accordingly, in the *highest* departments, the diligent prosecution of a certain course of study is deemed the best guarantee; and if the examiner has also been the candidate's teacher, he estimates the candidate's attainments less by his final examination than by his own former experience of him.

There was a time when the examination that

wound up *secondary* instruction was conducted on the same paternal principle; when, accordingly, the certificate of *maturité* was never refused by the masters of a classical school to one whom they knew to be a good, or even only a tolerable scholar, no matter what were the results of his final examination; when, therefore, said examination served merely as a bugbear to prevent excessive trifling and obstinate idleness. But that time is gone; and a youth is now passed on or stopped according to the results of an examination ranging over the manifold studies of years.

One effect of this change has been practically to blot out from the programme of *secondary* instruction the last year. For in this last year everything, down even to spelling, as experience has shewn, must be revised, with a view to the approaching examination; and the proper studies of the year cannot go on at the same time with this wholesale revision. Worse happens when the examination is attempted at the end of the year before the last; for then the year before the last is devoted to the wholesale revision required, and thus two years of the full course are practically lost.

The element of chance might be very nearly eliminated from examinations, so far as the translating of Latin and Greek is concerned, by using only the easiest authors; but these are overlooked in favour of the great poets and writers who constitute the glory of ancient literature; and hence a candidate, unable to read fluently a chapter of St Luke, may yet obtain a good mark for laboriously spelling out an obscure passage in a chorus of Sophocles.

There are, however, subjects in the programme of *secondary* instruction from which the element of chance cannot be eliminated, and for passing an examination in which the artificial mnemonics of the crammer are even a better preparation than the solid instructions of the teacher. Such are literature and philosophy. And then, of all the training intended to form the taste and the style, little or no account is or can well be taken in the final examination.

In any case, as soon as the passing of a final examination is made the supreme test, the importance of each subject is measured by its bearing on the examination, and the *secondary* schools, if they would

not be pronounced inefficient, must betake themselves to cramming. In vain will the Government call attention to the programme of study as not to be confounded with the programme of examination; the final examination will inevitably override the whole course of study.

Wonders were expected from the *written* examinations, on the results of which the admissibility of candidates to the oral examination at all is made to depend. But it has been found possible to cram for the *written* examinations too. And then, above all minor influences that could be mentioned, reigns this fact, that, whatever the test employed, the judges are obliged to regulate their standard by that of the candidates. When 50 or 55 per cent. have been plucked, the judges feel that they must stop—that the rope, pulled tighter, would snap,—and so they pass a batch of candidates, one half of whom, perhaps, they would fain have rejected. In fact, just in proportion to the severity of the written examination must be the indulgence shewn in the oral examination following, in order that the usual average of candidates may be passed. Not only is there a usual average now, but the average has never varied much, notwithstanding frequent and important changes in the regulations.

After all that has been done to render the final examination a thorough test, our youth persist in regarding it as in great measure a lottery. Nor are they wrong; for beyond a doubt, the oftener they try their luck, the more they multiply their chances of success. Even supposing that another year of regular study would greatly increase a single chance of passing at the end of it, he who presents himself three times in the course of that year, though with inferior preparation, is still more likely to pass on one or other of these three occasions. This, at least, is found to be the case; for the experiment is annually made on so large a scale, and with so great a measure of success, by the cleverer boys in the *secondary* schools, that the higher classes in these schools, instead of containing as formerly the cream, now contain the dregs of the lower ones. But on this very account, the highest classes no longer send forth the best candidates; and hence has arisen an impression, that the instruction given in these classes is superfluous.



Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.—At the request of the Council, the Executive Committee has prepared a report on the constitution and operations of the Association. They suggest that the departments should be reduced from six to four, viz :—*first*, Jurisprudence and the Amendment of the Law; *second*, Education; *third*, Health; *fourth*, Economy and Trade. The department of Reformation has been embraced in that of Education; the department of Trade and International Law, partly in that of Jurisprudence, partly in that of Economy. It is suggested, at the same time, that the departments may be subdivided into sections when it is found advisable. As to the mode of conducting the proceedings at the Annual Congress, the following suggestions are made :—“That the principal subjects for discussion be fixed by the Committees of Departments, in the form of questions, some time previous to the Annual Meeting, and with a view, among other considerations, to the specialities of the members likely to attend; that no department or section take up more than one such question on any day; that the committees obtain reports and papers to open the discussions on these questions, without subjecting the authors to the twenty-minute rule; that other papers, nevertheless, may be sent in under that rule at the option of the authors; but that the committees take care that the total number of papers read do not occupy more than one half of the day, the other half being reserved for discussion, under a limit of twenty minutes for each speaker; and that the papers not read may, nevertheless, be published in the *Transactions*, if the council think fit.” A new law provides for holding an Annual Business Meeting of the members, at the office of the Association, for the election of the officers and the reception of the accounts. The Eighth Annual Meeting will be held at York from the 22d to the 29th of September next, under the presidency of Lord Brougham.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.—The fifty-ninth general meeting was held on May 9th, immediately after the public examination of the male and female students. In the absence of Earl Russell, the chair was occupied by Earl Granville. An abstract of the Annual Report was read by Mr E. D. J. Wilks, from which it appeared that there were 186 young people of both sexes preparing for the work of teaching in elementary schools for the poor. At the Christmas examination for certificates the

result proved very satisfactory. Allusion was made to the appointment of Mr J. G. Fitch, M.A., as one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and the appointment of Mr J. C. Curtis as his successor in the Principalship of the Normal College in the Borough Road. The attendance in the Boys' Model School in the Borough Road averaged 587, making a total admitted of 66,204. The report stated that there would be a diminution of nearly £2000 in the funds of the society for the next year, owing to the operation of the Minute of Council affecting training schools, and concluded with an earnest appeal for pecuniary assistance for the maintenance of the present important agency. Resolutions were passed approving of the Report, and of the Society's proceedings; and addresses were delivered by Mr S. Gurney, M.P., the Rev. Messrs Newman Hall, Titcomb, and Spurgeon, and Earl Granville.

YORKSHIRE BRITISH AND WESLEYAN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The annual meeting of this Association was held at York, on the 7th May. J. G. Fitch, Esq., M.A., H.M. Inspector of Schools, in the chair. Members were present from Bradford, Great Horton, Howden, Goole, Selby, Scarborough, Pontefract, and several of the smaller towns and villages near York. After the preliminary business had been disposed of, Mr Rowbotham, of Pontefract, ably enforced the importance of having an efficient system of registering the particulars required for the returns under the “Revised Code.” He exhibited registers on a new plan, which he had had printed and had used in his own school for some time. Mr Shorter of the St George's Wesleyan Schools, York, introduced the next subject on the programme, “The Log-Book.” The third subject—“How to enlist the interest of parents in furthering, and children in acquiring, fitness for examination by attendance and attainments”—was brought before the meeting by Mr Clews of Howden. The Chairman, in a concluding speech, summed up the most important facts and suggestions which had been brought before the meeting by the previous speakers, and gave several valuable hints on the training of pupil-teachers. On the subject of the *Log-Book*, he remarked that the use of it was becoming daily more apparent to good teachers. We were all disposed to undervalue the habit of recording contemporary events, and to imagine that we shall recollect them hereafter. But such facts as were required to be recorded in the *Log-Book*, were of just the kind which was most likely to escape the memory, and of which, nevertheless, it was most

useful to keep an accurate record. The sort of entries which should be made, he thought, were—(1.) admissions of new scholars, or changes in the staff of teachers; (2.) results of the periodical examination of classes by the master; (3.) promotions of children from day to day; (4.) circumstances affecting the attendance of the scholars; (5.) the introduction of new school books, or of new methods of instruction; (6.) the commencement of any new series of lessons on common things; (7.) the subject of all miscellaneous or collective lessons on common things; (8.) visits of friends or patrons to the school; (9.) cases of extraordinary offences, or of unusual punishment; (10.) special facts about the pupil-teachers and the progress of their several classes; (11.) summaries of the statistics of the school at the end of the year or quarter; (12.) the trial of any new experiment in teaching, or the occurrence of any interesting fact in the history of the school. He concluded by urging the members to keep up the standard of education in their own schools, and by cautioning them against giving too much time to that which is merely technical, as required by the "Revised Code," to the detriment of the moral and intellectual training of the children.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND.—On Saturday, May 14th, a general meeting of the Committee of the Educational Institute of Scotland was held in the High School—Mr Purves, Musselburgh, President of the Institute, in the chair. The subject of the general Registration of teachers similar to that adopted in the medical profession was remitted to a sub-committee to negotiate with the College of Preceptors in London, with powers to send a deputation, if considered advisable, and to report. The President brought under the notice of the meeting the movement at present being made for the formation of an association for the better endowment and increased efficiency of the universities and other educational institutions of Scotland. The meeting highly approved of the proposal, and appointed a small Committee to co-operate with the gentlemen at present taking part in the movement. Mr Guthrie, of Pathhead, Kirkcaldy, urged upon the institute the desirableness of all its members having the privilege of becoming members of the Burgh and Parochial Schoolmasters' Widows' Fund, and moved for the appointment of a committee for the furtherance of the object. A Committee was appointed to take the subject into consideration. On the motion of the President, the meeting agreed to petition Parliament for the suspension of the Revised Code, and in favour of the appointment of a commission to inquire into the state of education in Scotland.

Kirkcaldy Branch.—The annual meeting of the

Kirkcaldy Branch of the Educational Institute of Scotland was held in the Burgh School, Kirkcaldy, on Saturday the 30th ultimo—Mr Forbes, of Philp's Institution, Kinghorn, in the chair. A discussion was raised on the propriety of admitting members of the Institute to the privileges of the Burgh and Parochial Schoolmasters' Widows' Fund, in the event of a new Act of Parliament being obtained to broaden the basis of that Fund, and a Committee was appointed to bring the subject before the meeting of the Committee of Management. Mr Forbes was re-elected Chairman, and Messrs Lockhart, Low, and M'Nab, delegates to the annual meeting. The superior merits of *The Museum*, as an educational periodical, were brought before the meeting. All were urged to become subscribers, and do all in their power to have the various matters of interest fully discussed in its pages by contributions from teachers of all classes. The large space devoted to correspondence, and its impartial admission of discussions and articles, expressing various opinions on the momentous educational questions of the day, were noticed as excellent features.

ABERDEEN FREE CHURCH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This Association has unanimously adopted a petition to the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education, in which they point out the objectionable features of the code, frequently referred to in these pages. In particular, they refer to the hardships that may arise from accidental circumstances causing a greatly diminished attendance at the time of the Inspector's visit; to the power which it would give to pupils of inflicting a money loss upon their teacher; to the temptation offered to an unscrupulous teacher to falsify his roll by fictitious attendances; to the undesirableness of examining children in Standard 1 in writing and arithmetic, and to the desirableness of examining children above Standard 6. It is the less necessary that we should give the petition *in extenso*, that the operation of the code in Scotland is likely to be suspended.

ASSOCIATION OF THE NON-PAROCHIAL TEACHERS OF ABERDEEN, BANFF, AND MORAY.—The Annual General Meeting of this Association, was held at Huntly on 14th May, Mr David Mayer, Aberdeen, in the chair. The meeting was very numerously attended. The chairman, in the course of a long speech, severely criticised the principle and theory of the Revised Code; and a large number of resolutions condemnatory of the Code were proposed and unanimously adopted.



The Month.

THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL.—Mr Lowe's retirement has been followed by the appointment of a Select Committee of the House of Commons, to inquire into the charge of mutilating the Inspectors' Reports, the imputation of which led the late Vice-President to resign. It has been followed by the withdrawal of the minutes of May 19. 1863, and March 11. 1864, which is virtually another triumph to the party opposed to the Revised Code, another defeat to the Education Office, another censure upon Mr Lowe, all the more severe that it comes from his quondam friends. Still further, Mr Lowe's resignation has been very rapidly followed by the suspension of the Revised Code in Scotland for a year, during which a Royal Commission will probably be engaged in inquiring into the state of education in that country. All this is very significant. Every one of these three measures had been proposed and urged upon the Government while Mr Lowe was in office. Every one of them had been stoutly refused. But no sooner is Mr Lowe out of office than every one of them is granted. It is not difficult to see, then, where the obstruction lay.

It were vain to deny or conceal that Mr Lowe's retirement gave immense satisfaction in every part of the scholastic world. The events by which it has been so quickly followed have tended very considerably to intensify that feeling. The schoolmasters have begun again to breathe freely. Their hopes of amelioration have been steadily rising ever since the 18th of April. Mr Bruce's administration has been happily inaugurated by acts of a conciliatory nature, which lead schoolmasters and managers to expect that their suggestions and remonstrances will not now be superciliously tossed aside as unworthy of consideration.

This satisfactory change is, however, accompanied by one serious drawback. Mr Lingen still wields the pen of "My Lords" at the Education Office. The country now sees through the fiction of "My Lords," and is pretty well aware with how much of the odium the Committee has lately incurred their Secretary should be credited. The insufferable tone, the obscurity of meaning, and the bad English, for which alone the letters issued from the office are remarkable, have excited a feeling of very general disgust, a disgust height-

ened by the conviction that the Committee is not responsible for the petty impertinencies so often perpetrated in their Lordships' name. Sir John Pakington's motion seems to indicate, amongst other things, that this feeling is not unknown in the House of Commons. In the course of his speech Sir John said—"The fact is, the explanations and disclosure which have been made in this House within the last few weeks have made me entirely doubtful as to the quarter on which the blame of those transactions rests. There is no doubt that a deep feeling of dissatisfaction and distrust of the administration of the educational department prevails throughout the country. Whether the fault be with the President or the Vice-President, or with the President and the Vice-President together, or with that mysterious body who are spoken of in every letter as 'my lords,' or with the Secretary—(hear, hear)—who signs my lords' letters, or writes their letters for them, I am at a loss to determine; and it is one of those questions as to which I ask for an inquiry." The fate of his motion, however, though we thoroughly sympathise with its object, we are not inclined in the mean time to regret. It was perhaps better that the field of the Committee's inquiry should in the first instance be confined to the subject which called for its appointment. And we are much mistaken if, in connection with its proceedings, the conduct of the officials of the department does not come under review, and call for severe animadversion. Moreover, we are satisfied that, unless the new Vice-President introduces very extensive administrative changes, and succeeds at once in keeping his subordinates in their proper place, the more general inquiry must come, and that very speedily. We do not know whether any system of pensions is in vogue in the Education Office, but certain we are, that nothing would so much tend to restore confidence in the department as the announcement, that their Lordships, in their wisdom and liberality, had seen fit to grant a handsome retiring allowance to Mr R. R. W. Lingen.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS' REPORT.—It was hardly to be expected that Mr Grant Duff's motion, condemnatory of the state of the public schools,

would be carried in the House of Commons. It was a great gain that it was not defeated by a directly counter-motion. Mr Gladstone has given a distinct pledge that Government will next session introduce a measure on the subject of the Report. Mr Grant Duff's speech was able, temperate, and telling; and it will be invaluable in conveying to the country the gist of the Commissioners' strictures and suggestions. It is a little difficult, we confess, to reconcile the tone of Mr Gladstone's speech on this occasion with the words of his letter published in the appendix to the Report. In his letter, he said that "the amount of work which we get out of the boys at our public schools, speaking of the mass of them, is scandalously small." In his speech, he said that "there is no period attached to the history of the universities or the public schools of England when their instruction, in the opinion of the time, has answered so well, or when they have so effectually performed the work for which they were ordained, namely the work of rearing the English gentleman, and the fitting him for the discharge of those varied duties which in this country have always been inseparable from his position in life." So that the English gentleman is best reared upon a "scandalously small" amount of work! This may be a great compliment to the public schools, though a very poor compliment to the English gentleman. But it is too plain that Mr Gladstone spoke throughout under the influence of what he calls the "conservative feeling in all of us who have been connected with these schools." The apologetic tone in which he and all the speakers who followed him indulged, indicates a desire to break the fall of the schools, and make as light as possible of their deficiencies. He succeeded in diverting the debate from its main issue, and in saving the schools from a formal censure. The question, however, as a public question, cannot rest where he so ingeniously left it. Meantime we are glad to learn that in more than one of the schools, the suggestions of the Commissioners on educational points are being fairly and conscientiously carried out.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS. — The eighth annual Local Examinations commenced at Oxford, and fifteen other local centres, on Tuesday the 24th May. The number of local centres (besides Oxford) last year was only thirteen. Gloucester has dropped out of the list, and Cheltenham, Truro, and West Buckland have been added to it. The total number of candidates this year is 1052, the same exactly as in 1862, but 19 (15 juniors and 4 seniors) fewer than last year; the greatest diminution being in London, from 281 to 218; and the greatest increase being in Oxford, from 44 to 80. It will be remembered that the operation of the new conscience clause in connection with the divinity examination, which took every one so much by surprise on the morning of the examination last year, was postponed till this year. It now comes into full force, making it essential that every one who does not, *conscientiæ causâ*, decline the doctrinal paper, shall satisfy the examiners in that paper. No matter how well a candidate stands in other parts of the examination, unless he passes in the Rudiments of Faith and Religion, he will be rejected. It is noteworthy in connection with this stringent law, that the number of those who, on conscientious grounds, decline the religious paper, has this year considerably increased. Last year, only 261, or 24 per cent., pled conscience; this year 305, or nearly 29 per cent., urged this plea. No doubt the additional risk which the doctrinal examination now implies has wonderfully quickened many easy consciences. The attempt to perpetuate the present unsatisfactory arrangements in connection with the "religious difficulty," or if possible to make them more unsatisfactory, has fortunately, in the mean time, been frustrated by the vote of Convocation on the 20th ult., which leaves the matter exactly *in statu quo* for another year, with the understanding that it is merely a tentative arrangement. The strong indications of a wish to throw the examination more decidedly open than it has ever yet been, should make Dr Pusey pause before he again attempts to strangle the Local Examinations with the cord of his bigotry.



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

A NEGLECTED CHAPTER OF SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY.

OF all studies, pursued by the young, History and Geography most admit of being treated in a picturesque and pleasant fashion ; and in no way can the physical structure and qualities of a land be better impressed upon the mind of a youthful student, than by regarding it as a theatre, in which great acts of History have been performed, the swell or sinking of whose surface, and the conformation of whose shores, have modified the plot and action of the tremendous drama of Time. Looking with a broader view, and aiming at a somewhat stronger grasp than usual, we propose in the present paper to sketch a phase of geographical study, which has been either entirely ignored, or but very faintly touched, in our standard text-books.

Taking Europe, both as the great centre of modern history, and as the corner of the world most interesting to ourselves, we proceed to shew in broad outline how the Physical Geography of its various countries has affected the destinies of the nations dwelling in them. Since the theme is too rich for exhaustive treatment in a sketch like this, we shall confine our remarks principally to the effects of *coast-line* and *surface*.

And, first, casting a glance upon the map of Europe, we observe the extraordinary gapping of its coast-line with inlets, and the consequent connection of all its countries except one with the sea. The hasty comparison of Europe with Africa, in this respect, will suggest why a little corner of the huge land-mass we call the Old World has played so prominent a part in the work of civilization, while the enormous lump of

earth and rock to the south of this favoured spot has done little more than nurture the victims of slavery, and supply an arena where travellers and gorilla-hunters may gather materials for museums and for books. The unbroken coast-line of Africa must always prevent Timbuctoo from starting up in rivalry of Paris. It will easily be seen that the really important part of Europe, the part whose history is fuller and grander than all the history of the rest, assumes the peninsular form, and spreads its branching arms of every size and shape into the western and southern seas. A line, drawn from the head of the Black Sea to the mouth of the Vistula, cuts off this great historic peninsula, which repeats its own serrations almost without end. It will afterwards be more fully apparent, how the sea has influenced the history of Europe. The situation of nearly all Europe within the limits of the temperate zone has also done much to develop civilization there ; for nations, like individuals, prefer to occupy a comfortable home, and can thrive better, where there is a happy mixture of sun to warm and frost to brace, than in those extreme regions where men risk transformation into icebergs or cinders.

Before I cease to view the map of Europe as a whole, let me give two cases, in which, on a splendid scale and with a splendid success, her physical form has proved her salvation. At two points our continent almost touches the other masses of the old world ; and at both the sworded apostles of the Koran assailed her with transient triumph.

Early in the eighth century the Saracen

scimitars flashed across the strait now called Gibraltar, and spread desolation among the Visigoths of southern Spain, driving them from sierra to sierra, until they found at last a refuge amid the woods and rocks of the Asturias. Then over the great Pyrenean wall swarmed the turbaned host, rejoicing in the fair grape-land that spread before them as they pressed on to the Loire. But a giant warrior obstructed the way. Charles the Hammer smote them on the plain of Tours with a stroke so sore that they fled back behind the great mountain barrier, and contented themselves with a dominion rooted for a time in southern and central Spain. Pepin and Charlemagne completed this work of repulsion, which could never have been accomplished, if a great natural rampart of granite and grauwacke had not reared its pine-clad slopes between the basins of Ebro and Garonne. Let us not forget, however, that a rampart, no matter how strong, is next to useless, if there stand not behind it a gallant nation, keeping its line of defence with eagle watch and stalwart arm. This service the Franks rendered in an hour of imminent peril to western Europe. And then, when the Arabs, driven to the south of the Pyrenees, were locked up in an isolated corner of the continent they had intended to overrun, the southward pushing began, which drove them, century after century, down the inclined plane, until they were forced at last to abandon even the red towers of the Alhambra.

What the Pyrenees and the Asturias did for western Europe, the Danube accomplished in the East. Many a time did the Mohammedans dart across the little belt of brine, which severs Scutari from Constantinople, and recoil scorched with the Greek fire, which shrivelled up their ships, before the fierce rush of 1453 admitted the victorious Turks to the city of the Cæsars. It was then not long until the Turks began to push north-eastward with fierce intensity. But there rolled the Danube with its broad swift stream; there, queen of the river-forts, stood Belgrade, where the tributary Save comes plunging in from the mountains of Carniola; and there, too, stood the human obstacle to their further progress, with strength greater than rolling water and endurance more lasting than stone, the brave sons of Hungary—Magyars, who, in the polish of civilization, had not lost the wild warlike fire they had brought from the gorges of Ural—born soldiers, whom arts and refinement had only changed from rough iron into glittering and elastic steel. To their valour, manning the great line of the Danube, and supplemented on the waters of the Mediterranean by the nautical prowess of Venetian sailors, did

Europe mainly owe her safety from Moslem invasion on the Asiatic side.

Thus to a range of mountains and the current of a giant stream do we partly owe the fact, that western Europe is still the heart of Christendom. Ugly as it is, we would rather retain the hat than don the turban. We prefer the solemn grandeur of a Christian cathedral, with its shadowy aisles and the prismatic splendour of its painted oriel, to the barbaric tinsel and fantastic spires of a Mohammedan mosque. And we confess to liking the plate-glass windows and civil shopmen of Oxford Street, much better than the bearded tricksters who sit, smoking and silent, among their diamonds, silks, and perfumes in the bazaars by the Bosphorus. Our freedom from Moslem life and all its belongings may in a sense be traced to the Pyrenees and the Danube.

We all know how the insular position of Britain has rendered her a great outpost of the European continent, girded by a wall of brine stronger than stone or steel; how the commodious clefts in her eastern and the sheltered portions of her western shore have nourished seaports brimming with the riches of the world; and how the protecting mountain-wall, which shelters her lowlands alike from the eating force of Atlantic billows and the blighting breath of Polar storms, has also afforded a refuge to the lingering remnants of that old Celtic race, which formed the foremost wave of the human flood streaming westward from Babel.

In France, we find a compact pentagon, whose river-basins afforded an irresistible temptation to the barbarians of the early Christian centuries. Two sides are washed by the western sea; on the south, we find rock and brine; the east is guarded by the Alps, the Jura, and the Vosges, but the north-east is unprotected by any natural barrier. Here then might France expect attack. How the absence of a physical defence in this frontier has moulded her destinies, the most cursory reader of French history can remember. What nature had not given, art supplied in the shape of those monster stars and polygons of stone, built by Vauban and his kind along the whole line from Dunkirk to the Moselle. The eruption of huge stone fortresses spread itself over the flats of Belgium too, where existed many great and rich cities, whose only security from plunder lay in locking themselves up in double and triple walls. In a land all encrusted with such erections Condé and Turenne won laurels to be woven with the Bourbon lilies; William of Orange fought nearly all his battles; and John Duke of Marlborough earned that splendid renown, which a mean

nature and a vicious life have scarcely availed to dim. In our own century, too, Belgium has vindicated its title to be called one of the two great battle-grounds of modern Europe, for there at Waterloo in fierce collision closed the military history of two marvellous men of war.

It was a favourite dream of the first Napoleon to extend this defenceless and ever-shifting frontier of France to the Rhine, which seemed to him the natural boundary of the land on that side. But here the balance of power came into question. If Europe could have been sure that the Rhenish frontier would not be made a base for pushing the empire eastward to the Elbe, the Oder, the Vistula, or where you will, this might have been allowed. But there being no security, Napoleon was beaten from flood to flood, until France had shrunk to her proper size.

The nation inhabiting the irregular little patch of Rhine mud, which we call Holland, has more than once defended her liberty and her faith, by permitting the billows again to sweep the level fields. And, when the smiling gardens that edge the trim canals proved too small for the employment of a growing nation, Holland, turning to that friendly sea again, founded a navy and a commerce, which enabled her to fight the good fight of freedom with singular success.

What meadows surrounded by the sea did for Holland, mountains achieved for that Alpine country, whose particles, washed down by the Rhine, may be said to have formed the flats by the Zuyder Zee. Switzerland, a cluster of green cups with rims of ice and snow, is the only European country without a sea-coast. But she possesses two great outlets in those rivers of similar name, which pour the waters of Constance and Geneva into different seas. By means of these and certain passes, which zig-zag over the Alps, the toys and trinkets of Swiss industry reach the marts for which they have been made.

A land, equally divided between Lowland and Highland, is the fittest home for a nation combining enterprise with love of freedom. The mountains of Switzerland would avail little, if the deep-green pastures did not brighten between. Scotland and Hungary, both lands of the patriot, present remarkable examples of this historic law. Too little stress has been laid upon the effects of Lowlands in moulding national character in its highest forms. Take from Scotland the lowlands of Forth and Clyde and Tweed, from Hungary the basin of the Theiss, and you leave behind regions, capable indeed of nourishing a free, brave, and hardy people, but devoid of those fair and fertile spaces, which subtly refine the character of a

nation, and supply both room and material for the development of the arts of civilization.

The sea saved the Dutch Republic from extinction. It saved Portugal, too, from being completely swallowed by Spain. Suppose the country we call Portugal to have been on the inner or Mediterranean side of Spain, what power would have availed to save the sloping stripe from a strong neighbour, holding the central sierras and the southern rock? Leaving out of account her internal barrenness, and the historic fact that her princesses—plain and pretty—have secured for her the support of some of the leading powers in Europe, we can easily perceive that Denmark also owes much to the sea.

There is another European plain, besides Belgium, upon which the battles of the nations have been fought. When France and Austria have had recourse to the arbitration of the sword, Lombardy has reddened with the blood of the contending nations. All Italy, indeed, dowered with the fatal gift of beauty, has undergone a career of brilliant misery, and has nearly always been a piece of patchwork upon the map of modern Europe. Ever since Odoacer raised his throne upon the ruins of Rome, Italy has been torn to pieces by the convulsions resulting from internal disorganization and external assault. The republic cities of the Middle Ages gave a brilliance to Italian history, but no strength to Italian nationality, for even the cohesive power of a common name, a common language, and a common faith proved too weak to bind these splendid fragments into a united state. That a strong neighbour should step in and help himself, is only what all history teaches us to expect. And we accordingly find the eagles, single-headed and double-headed alike, picking poor Italy to the very bones, and building their outpost eyries to the south of that great mountain-wall, whose very existence is a physical denial of any right which Austria or France may assert to the possession of the basin of the Po.

Another nation, holding a central place in Europe, has assumed the form of a collection of states, preserving distinct boundaries, and often possessing dissimilar constitutions. But there is strength in Germany which does not exist in Italy, a strength born mainly of Protestantism and commerce. The geographical reason why Germany and Italy consist of a cluster of loosely-jointed states rests in their central position, which filled them with torrents of barbarians during those turbulent centuries, when the map of modern Europe was forming, when all the broken barriers of the old Roman Empire were floating about, and conflicting waves of Goths, Huns,

Vandals, Alans, Franks, Sueves, Saxons, Celts, and Lombards washed restlessly and stormily round the heart and through the limbs of the continent, until Time brought abatement, and the mountain-tops of History were seen again emerging from the bosom of the flood. That great deluge, concealing for a time the effete world of the past, left behind a sedimentary deposit which nourished a new crop of peoples to act out the drama of modern history. It so befel that the river basins, cup-like valleys, terraced table-lands, or maritime flats of that part of Europe, lying between Jutland and Sicily, retained some portion of nearly every race that battled in the surging chaos; and partly from this arose that variety of states, which marks distinctively the maps of Germany and Italy.

The hold which Austria has upon the Danube, and the girdling ranges of mountains which lock her closely round, are the chief sources of her power, so far as it depends on physical geography. But the possession of these advantages is counter-balanced by the lack of a good sea-coast, Venetia and her Istrian and Dalmatian provinces being the only parts of her empire accessible to ships. But her central position has rendered her capital the trysting-place of the nations, where men learned in diplomacy meet to play that great game of treaty-making, in which deceit is not unknown.

When the centre of civilization, which is always shifting from shore to shore, came over the waters of the Levant from its ancient dwelling by the Nile, it found a land of rock and valley, bathed in a delicious atmosphere, deeply cleft by gulfs, and so garlanded with emerald islands, sleeping in the sea, as to possess every temptation of a luxurious dwelling-place, and every physical quality of a prosperous home. Greece rose to the head of the ancient world in arms, in letters, and in arts. Corinth lay between two seas, drinking wealth from east and west; and Athens, not far off, lifted to the sky those pillared fanes whose copied beauty decorates our streets. To soil and sky, to gulf-indented island-sprinkled shore, to that happy mixture of green valley, breezy upland, and sky-piercing hill, which constitutes the surface of Greece, the land owed much of her ancient splendour, and owed especially those creations of beautiful fiction, which fill our galleries with her sculptured stone, and in her mythology supply our poets with material for the exercise of their finest art. Centuries of slavery and degradation have all but crushed out the old Greek fire, which, seemingly unquenchable, had its emblem in the blazing naphtha that so often scorched the Turkish galleys into charcoal. Nor is there

any likelihood or hope that Greece shall ever rule the world again, until at least New Zealand has had a turn. But the old heroic spirit, nurtured as well by silent rock and speaking river as by the historic memories that haunt the soil, occasionally shews itself in sudden flashes round the mountain-tops of Greece. Of this the late war, miserable as it often was, displayed many examples. And we are not sure that we should not recognize in Montenegro—that little Switzerland of the Adriatic, which penetrates the side of Turkey like a sharp and rankling thorn—a mountain-cradle of heroes, who may yet exercise no small influence upon the destinies of Europe.

There is another land, which resembles Greece in peninsular form, a deeply indented shore, a fringe of islands, and a central structure of mountains. But wanting the splendid sky and sun of Greece, Norway lacks her splendid history too. Yet, even with icy winds and an iron sea, the mountainous half of Scandinavia, whose grand physical use is to form a barrier against Arctic storm and surge, has played a respectable part in the history of modern Europe, and now, although the salmon fishers of London and Paris, who rent the rivers every season, are importing something of the vice that seems inseparable from the life of civilized capitals, is honourably distinguished among its neighbours for a religious faith, strong as the mountains that have nourished the feeling, and a national chastity pure as the snow that whitens for ever on their tops.

An easy journey carries us from Norway to Russia. That portion of the monster plain, which belongs to the map of Europe, is washed by three different seas. In the fact that not one of the three is available for the purposes of perfectly unrestricted commerce or war, we may find the weakness which prevents the Giant Bear from devouring his neighbours right and left. The White Sea is locked up nearly all the year with ice. The Baltic line of coast has its ice too in less degree; but the grand difficulty here consists in the narrow necks, through which the Russian fleets must seek the open sea. Five nations guard the Sound and the Belts; and, even if a navy struggled through, there stand the two great powers of Western Europe, ready to smite and scatter the armadas of the Czar. Even greater difficulties beset the Russian shipping in the Black Sea. It would be simply impossible to run the gauntlet through the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and down the whole length of the Mediterranean to that worst pass of all, where British guns lie couched in the heart of the Rock, if all the nations that border the great inland sea had

combined to prevent such a movement. The war between Russia and Sweden, in which Peter the Great and Charles the Twelfth measured their strength at Narva and Pultowa, may be simply explained as a fierce effort on the part of the former to gain possession of that piece of Sweden, which borders the Kattegat and faces a comparatively open sea. To the same desire for a useful shore may be traced the repeated attempts of Russia upon Turkey, and that mysterious way she has of aiming at India through Persia and Herat,—a stealthy kind of strategy, which comes to the surface now as an Afghan War, and now as an Indian Mutiny.

The climate of the Russian plain, though certainly one cause why her national wealth is not proportioned to her colossal size, is yet a defence of the securest kind. When the Madman of the North wanted to shew the world how really he deserved the name, he invaded Russia with a host of 80,000 men, wading through heaps of snow to the field of Pultowa, where the wreck of his army suffered total defeat. And, untaught by this historic lesson, the Corsican Emperor of France did the same mad thing, to meet a still more disastrous defeat. "Worse than the Cossacks were the wind and the snow. The land spread before them one vast winding sheet of drifted white. The blinding flakes fell thick around them as they stumbled on, marching between files of their comrades who had been frozen to death." Wiser and warier, in the late Russian War, we attacked the Bear, as negroes attack the crocodile by thrusting their fingers into its eyes. We burned out one eye which had long kept dragon watch on the Black Sea; we peeped into that other, which glares out of the deep socket formed by the Gulf of Finland, but, not liking the wicked look of Cronstadt, we adopted the safer plan of pounding out with our cannon the granite teeth which stud all the neigh-

bouring shore. But we never ventured towards the heart of the land, or beyond the safe base of operations afforded by our ships. In the trenches and in the tents our men had quite enough of a Russian winter to know how dreadful a weapon it might be, and has been made, for the destruction of an invading army.

Lying between Russia and Prussia is a rich defenceless plain, formed chiefly of the basins drained by the Vistula and the Niemen. It is the unhappy heroic Poland, a wonderful exception to the geographical laws which mould the history of nations. The intensity of Polish patriotism, and the force of Polish courage supplied the place of natural barriers, and long kept together, in the midst of neighbours growing stronger every day, a gallant nation of cavaliers, until disunion sapped their strength, and the vultures swooped upon their unguarded prey.

We have thus rambled over the map of Europe, touching lightly those physical features which have more or less influenced the history of the nations. The subject is full of interest and instruction; and, if presented to students in a systematic form, would do much towards interweaving the twin studies of History and Geography, and would bring into play upon both that faculty of association, which works so subtly and strongly beneath the current of our thoughts. The still life of the world, to speak in painter's phrase, is too closely linked to the history of nations to be ever properly kept apart in teaching. And we shall act as stupidly in our geographical teaching, if we regard countries as just so many variously shaped pieces of earth, containing certain populations, and put together like the pieces of some huge dissected toy, as we should do by making a jumble of disembodied names and colourless events supply the place of real and living history.

THE PALACE OF THE SUN.

OVID, METAM. II. AD IN.



N towering columns, stately to behold;
With glint of diamond, and gleam of gold;
With polish'd spires of ivory, that fret
Gable and battlement and parapet;
With swinging gates of silver pure and white,
Rises the palace of the Lord of light.

The panell'd doors of metal rich and rare
 By skill of craftsman shew more wondrous fair;
 For Mulciber hath chased with cunning hand
 A belt of waves a-girdling the dry land;
 In rippling waters swim the gods sea-green;
 And over all is arch'd the blue serene:
 Lies shifty *Prôteus* on the sand asleep;
Triton blows sea-shell echoes o'er the deep;
Ægeon floats along the flood, and round
 Huge, rolling whales his giant arms are wound:
Dôris is there, queen-mother of the sea,
 And maiden forms, a scatter'd companÿ;
 Some ride on dolphin-back; some cleave the wave;
 Some comb their green locks under ocean-cave;
 A hundred sea-nymphs, daughters of one mother,
 Beautiful all, and each unlike the other:
 And here are fenced cities, built of man;
 Here woodlands wild, and satyrs, and god *Pan*:
 And high in azure on each panel shines
 The mystic order of the starry signs.

Meanwhile, the stripling, eager to make good
 His doubted claims to heavenly fatherhood,
 Steps lightly up the long and sloping way,
 And, lost in wonder, nears the gates of day;
 Passes the glistening threshold of the place,
 And moves his steps toward his Father's face;
 But, dazzled with the blaze of splendour, stands
 Afar, and shades his forehead with both hands.
 With robe of scarlet o'er his shoulders thrown
 Sits the great Sun-god on his emerald throne:
 To right and left, in order ranged, appear
 The Months, the children of the sacred year;
 The Hours, the daughters fair of Night and Day;
 And wrinkled Time, a shadowy form and grey:
 Young Spring, his forehead wreathed with flowers, stands there;
 Stripp'd Summer stands, the wheat in her loose hair;
 Stands Autumn, from the wine-press purple-red;
 And Winter, with thin snows upon his hoary head.

D'A. W. T.



GREEK DECLENSIONS AND THE SYSTEM OF STEMS.



PROFESSOR George Curtius, in his Greek Grammar recently published by Mr Murray, has adopted, as we noticed at the time, the scientific or philosophical method, so far as this is compatible with the objects of a school-book. That the old system, or rather no system, as we still find it in a number of very popular Greek and Latin Grammars extensively used both in England and Scotland, and abounding in unintelligible rules

and still more unintelligible exceptions, is utterly at variance with the present state of our philological knowledge, is well known to all who have followed the researches of modern scholars with any degree of attention; and the obstinate adherence of teachers to antiquated methods and systems is one of the strangest phenomena. Even in Germany, where scholarship and comparative philology are much more zealously cultivated than among ourselves, Professor Curtius has found

it necessary to explain his method in a separate volume, entitled, *Erläuterungen zu meiner Griechischen Schulgrammatik*, Prag. 1863. Although in this country some teachers, familiar with the best Latin and Greek grammars, will not, we hope, find it very difficult to understand and use Curtius's work in their classes with advantage, yet we think that we may be doing a service to a great many by publishing from time to time such extracts from Curtius's *Erläuterungen* as appear to us most essential in the rational study of grammar. The first paper we offer to our readers treats of the Declension of Substantives and Adjectives. It must be remembered at the outset, that Professor Curtius, though well aware that originally there was only a single declension, divides all declinable words into two great classes. His first principal Declension (vowel declension) comprehends all words the stems of which end in *a* or *e*, and accordingly corresponds to what are commonly called the first and second Declensions. His second Declension (consonant declension) comprises all nouns the stems of which end in a consonant, or in the vowels *i* and *u*, and a very few with stems in *o*.

"Throughout the whole system of inflections," says Curtius, "every thing depends upon a strict and sharp distinction between stem and termination, and without this no analysis of forms is possible. Even a beginner can easily be made to understand that the stem of a noun contains the basis of its meaning, and is preserved through all its cases, while the terminations are added as the characteristic signs of the different cases, including the nominative. The system of stems has the advantage of far greater simplicity over the earlier method. According to the notion of former grammarians, the nominative singular is the first given point, the *πρώτη Σίσσις*; but how from this nominative the other cases are evolved, remained a perfect mystery. They were satisfied with the bare fact that a noun ending in *es* changes this termination in the Gen. into *eu*, and in the Dat. into *ei*, &c. The so-called third, or, as I call it, the consonant declension, cannot be understood at all in this manner. For while, for example, the Nom. *Σῆς* makes its gen. by the addition of *-es*, the word *σῶμα* requires the addition of *-res*, and *ἰλαίς* the throwing off of *ς* and the addition of *des*, and *λόγος* the addition *Σes* after rejecting the final *ς*, &c., &c. Hence, in order to prevent utter confusion, grammarians had recourse to the expedient of mentioning in this declension the Gen. along with the Nom. This was in reality the first step towards the adoption of the system of stems, the Gen. being chosen only because in it the part

which remains unchanged through all the cases (and this is nothing but the stem) shewed itself distinctly. Strictly speaking, therefore, the early grammarians derived all the cases from the Nom. only in the first two declensions, but in the third from the Gen., while they allowed the Nom. to stand by the side of the Gen. as a fact requiring no further explanation. The Genitive in this proceeding was preferred not on account of any special peculiarity, but from the accidental circumstance of its being the second in the order of cases. But besides this arbitrary proceeding, the old method does not produce any insight into the formation of the cases. It acquiesces in mere metamorphoses of *es* into *eu*, of *ei* into *i*, *a*, &c., while the system of stems acquires quite a different degree of clearness even from the fact that the case-ending is specified as such, and impressed upon the mind in connection with that which is really unchangeable. To this, however, must be added the most essential advantage, that in the new system the nominative also ceases to occupy an exceptional position for itself, and is developed, like the rest of the cases, from the basis or substratum common to all. The erroneous treatment of the inflections bore its fruit also in another respect; for as one case was arbitrarily derived from another, a similar method was unhesitatingly adopted in regard to the formation of words in derivation and composition. A rational system of sounds was utterly impossible, and thus etymology, or the inquiry into the formation of words, was devoid of every solid basis, and a foundation was laid for the most arbitrary and strange delusions.

"This state of things could not last, and, in fact, ever since the appearance of Buttmann's Greek Grammar, a certain degree of attention was paid to the stems of nouns of the third declension. Buttmann himself, however, was still very uncertain, and recommended the 'genetic method,' especially to the oral instruction of 'intelligent' teachers. Matthiæ even assailed this 'hypothesis,' and wanted to apply the well-known saying of Quintilian, *inter virtutes grammatici habebitur aliqua nescire*, to the question, 'how it happened that the Greeks declined the words of the third declension in such a variety of ways?' He might as well have proposed to substitute *omnia* for *aliqua*. Thiersch acted much more consistently and intelligently, but K. L. Struve, to whom Latin grammar is indebted for essential improvements, in his Greek Grammar returns to the old system of deriving all cases from the nominative. The influence of comparative grammar, however, at last manifested itself with irresistible force, and since

the publication of Kühner's Grammar, the system of stems, so far as the third declension is concerned, has become firmly established, and a return to the old irrational method is impossible. Up to a certain point every author of a school grammar must, however reluctantly, bend to the truth. But the stems in ς , as in $\gamma\epsilon\nu\epsilon\varsigma$ (Nom. $\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\omicron\varsigma$) are ignored even by the best grammarians down to the present day, although it is as easy to understand that $\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\epsilon\varsigma$ has arisen from $\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\epsilon\sigma\varsigma$, as that $\acute{\epsilon}\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\epsilon\varsigma$ is formed from $\acute{\epsilon}\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\epsilon\sigma\varsigma$, and although it is quite absurd to regard the final ς in the neuter noun $\gamma\acute{\epsilon}\nu\omicron\varsigma$ as a sign of the nominative, such an ς belonging exclusively to masculines and feminines. However, an insight into the essential laws of language, and the possibility of recognising linguistic forms in their natural development, are still regarded by many teachers as something too insignificant to deviate for its sake from the old ways more than 'dire necessity' demands. If any one wished to write a book on the inertness of the human mind, he would find rich materials in the history of our school grammars, although dozens of them are every year thrown into the market.

"Among the consequences of this obstinate contentment with traditional usage, we may mention the inconsistency with which the first two declensions still continue to be treated as quite different from the third. Whoever traces $\pi\alpha\upsilon\tau\epsilon\varsigma$ to a stem $\pi\alpha\upsilon\tau$, is forced, in the same way, to trace $\text{Μουσά}-\omega\upsilon$ to Μουσα , and $\text{λόγο}-\nu$ to λογο . This thorough acknowledgment of the stems seems to have been neglected only because in the first and second Declensions, that is, in words with stems ending in α and \omicron , there was no urgent practical occasion for it, for a teacher certainly may cause his pupils thoughtlessly to repeat their paradigm $\text{λόγ}-\omicron\varsigma$, $\text{λόγ}-\omicron\upsilon$, λόγω , $\text{λόγ}-\omicron\upsilon$, in the old fashion, without any difficulty presenting itself. But some evil consequences are nevertheless connected with it, for this abuse prevents the learner becoming aware of the unity of all the Declensions; and surely even a moderately intelligent pupil must be struck when told that in $\pi\acute{\omicron}\lambda\upsilon\text{-}\nu$ a mere ν is the termination of the accusative, while in $\text{λόγ}\omicron\upsilon$ and $\chi\acute{\omega}\rho\alpha\upsilon$, $\omicron\upsilon$ and $\alpha\upsilon$ are marked as the endings for the accusative; and when he finds $\omega\upsilon$ to be the termination of the gen. pl. of $\text{Θηρ}-\omega\upsilon$, he must surely perceive that the Homeric $\text{Μουσά}\omega\upsilon$ has nothing but this very same termination, and in general that the vowels α and \omicron , where with slight modifications they run through the whole Declension, cannot rationally be assigned to anything but to the stem, the unvarying part of the word.

"Now, as there does not exist the shadow of a doubt about these vowels belonging to the stem,

it is perfectly inconceivable why that which is correct and true should not be taught in schools. In this way alone unity is made to appear in variety, while the supposed stems Μουσ and λογ , which still disfigure many grammars, have neither scientific foundation nor practical meaning.

"It has been objected to the consistent carrying out of the system of stems, that it deals only with abstractions, and that pupils ought to be taught the actual language of the Greeks as it was once spoken by that people, and not a system of shadowy forms which never existed. This sounds very plausible. But where is the Greek grammar that does not have recourse to forms whose existence in practical usage cannot be proved? Have the endings $\mu\iota$, $-\sigma\iota$, $-\tau\iota$, in conjugation ever been spoken as independent words? or have those false stems, λογ , τιμ , $\gamma\epsilon\nu\epsilon$, ever been spoken? or does any Greek author ever use $\Lambda\text{ΑΒ}\Omega$? Yet for the last hundred years no one has been able to effect anything without such 'abstractions.' Where, moreover, do we find the form $\text{λείον}-\sigma\iota$, from which all the world justly derives $\text{λείου}-\sigma\iota$? in short, the object we have in view is not a complete innovation, but only the consistent carrying out of a principle universally recognised as correct; nay, in many instances the question in reality only is whether we are to assume such forms, whose existence at one time can be proved by the strictest method of linguistic inquiry, or such as like λογ , τιμ , and $\gamma\epsilon\nu\epsilon$, can be proved never to have existed as such. And it is significant that the opponents of our innovations have always been particularly pleased with these latter forms.

"But stems are by no means mere abstractions. At a period far preceding the existence of a Greek language as such, those forms which we now call roots and stems, were in all probability living words, though for the greater part in a form different from the specifically Greek. It is also beyond doubt that afterwards a large number of other stems were formed in imitation of the comparatively limited number of original stems. But even independently of this early life of the stems, they have always preserved a real existence, inasmuch as they live in the fully developed forms of inflection. They exist, though not by themselves, and are entitled to claim their recognition in science just as much as the cells of plants. Nominal stems exhibit their reality especially in derivative words, as in $\text{δί}\alpha\alpha\text{-}\iota\text{-}\varsigma$, $\text{δί}\kappa\alpha\iota\omicron\text{-}\sigma\upsilon\eta$, $\text{νέ}\sigma\tau\eta(\tau)\text{-}\varsigma$, $\text{πα}\iota\delta\text{-}\iota\omicron\text{-}\nu$, $\text{ἐμ}\epsilon\iota\varsigma\text{-}\tau\epsilon\rho\omicron\text{-}\varsigma$, and in compounds, e. g., $\text{λογ}\omicron\text{-}\gamma\acute{\rho}\alpha\phi\omicron\text{-}\varsigma$, $\text{ν}\iota\omicron\text{-}\tau\acute{\omicron}\pi\omicron\varsigma$, $\text{σα}\kappa\acute{\iota}\varsigma\text{-}\pi\alpha\lambda\omicron\text{-}\varsigma$. They, moreover, frequently shew themselves in the vocative completely in their primitive form, e. g., $\text{Σά}\kappa\kappa\alpha\iota\varsigma$, $\text{δαί}\mu\omicron\upsilon\varsigma$,

νῦμα, and even a pupil can be made to understand that the vocative is the noun by itself, without any grammatical relation, and for that very reason without any termination. Here we see most clearly that language is one organic whole,

in which all parts are interwoven with one another. Without a correct knowledge of stems a rational system of sounds as well as of word-building is an impossibility, and even syntax acquires a solid basis in this manner alone."

L. S.



THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS: PROPOSED COURSE OF STUDY.*

WE believe that for the instruction of boys, especially when collected in a large school, it is material that there should be some one principal branch of study, invested with a recognised and, if possible, a traditional importance, to which the principal weight should be assigned, and the largest share of time and attention given.

We believe that this is necessary in order to concentrate attention, to stimulate industry, to supply to the whole school a common ground of literary interest and a common path of promotion.

The study of the classical languages and literature at present occupies this position in all the great English schools. It has, as we have already observed, the advantage of long possession, an advantage so great that we should certainly hesitate to advise the dethronement of it, even if we were prepared to recommend a successor.

It is not, however, without reason that the foremost place has in fact been assigned to this study. Grammar is the logic of common speech, and there are few educated men who are not sensible of the advantages they gained as boys from the steady practice of composition and translation, and from their introduction to etymology. The study of literature is the study, not indeed of the physical, but of the intellectual and moral world we live in, and of the thoughts, lives, and characters of those men whose writings or whose memories succeeding generations have thought it worth while to preserve.

We are equally convinced that the best materials available to Englishmen for these studies are furnished by the languages and literature of Greece and Rome. From the regular structure of these languages, from their logical accuracy of expression, from the comparative ease with which their etymology is traced and reduced to general laws, from their severe canons of taste and style, from the very fact that they are "dead," and have been

handed down to us directly from the periods of their highest perfection, comparatively untouched by the inevitable process of degeneration and decay, they are, beyond all doubt, the finest and most serviceable models we have for the study of language. As literature they supply the most graceful and some of the noblest poetry, the finest eloquence, the deepest philosophy, the wisest historical writing; and these excellences are such as to be appreciated keenly, though inadequately, by young minds, and to leave, as in fact they do, a lasting impression. Beside this, it is at least a reasonable opinion, that this literature has had a powerful effect in moulding and animating the statesmanship and political life of England. Nor is it to be forgotten that the whole civilisation of modern Europe is really built upon the foundations laid two thousand years ago by two highly civilised nations on the shores of the Mediterranean; that their languages supply the key to our modern tongues; their poetry, history, philosophy, and law, to the poetry and history, the philosophy and jurisprudence, of modern times; that this key can seldom be acquired except in youth, and that the possession of it, as daily experience proves, and as those who have it not will most readily acknowledge, is very far from being merely a literary advantage.

It may be objected, indeed, that this is only true provided the study is carried far enough, and that in a large proportion of cases it is not carried far enough. Of the young men who go to the universities a great number, as we have seen, never acquire so much Latin and Greek as would enable them to read the best classical authors intelligently and with pleasure, and more than half of those who leave school do not go to the universities at all; among these the average of classical attainment is certainly lower still, and probably in nine cases out of ten they never, after they have quitted school, open a Greek or Latin book. It may be asked whether the mental discipline which such boys have received could not have

* From the "Report of the Public Schools Commissioners," Vol. I. pp. 22-25.

been imparted to them at least as well by other studies, in which they might perhaps have made more sensible progress, and which would have furnished them at the same time with knowledge practically and immediately serviceable to them in the business of life.

This objection raises two distinct questions, and may be used to support one of two alternative conclusions. For it may be contended either that there should in each great school be different courses of study for different capacities, or that there should be one course into which classics should not enter at all, or in which they should hold a subordinate place. The first of these questions will be considered hereafter with the attention which its importance demands. The second, which assumes that for the great mass of boys, if not for all, the course should be substantially one and the same, admits, in our opinion, of a simple and complete answer. It is, and it ought to be, the aim of the public schools to give an education of the best kind, not of the second best. The great service which they render to society consists in giving such an education to boys who have capacity and industry enough to take advantage of it, and no one would seriously recommend that they should forego this office for the sake of bringing down their teaching to a level adjusted to the reach of dull, uncultivated, or listless minds. They are bound indeed to adjust it to the scope of ordinary intellects, for the vast majority of the boys entrusted to them are not clever. But it is not necessary to be clever in order to gain solid advantage from the study of Latin and Greek; it is only necessary to be attentive, a condition equally indispensable to progress in any other study. Whether for an assemblage of boys of a uniformly low intellectual calibre it would not be practicable to devise some other course of instruction, which might be made, when perfected by time, as good an instrument of mental discipline as that which we recommend, is a question to which experience has not yet supplied a satisfactory answer. We entertain, however, no doubt that a boy of ordinary capacity, and even a dull and backward boy who can be induced to take pains, is likely to profit more on the whole in a school where he has highly educated masters, and travels the same road with companions who are being highly educated, where there is a high standard of taste and attainment, and the instruments and whole machinery of instruction are of the finest and most perfect kind, than he would under a system sedulously lowered to the pitch of his own intellectual powers.

Assuming, therefore, for the present at least,

that the course of study is to run mainly—we do not say undeviatingly—in one track, we are of opinion that the classical languages and literature should continue to hold, as they now do, the principal place in public school education. We are equally convinced that they ought not to be studied solely and exclusively. To enter fully into this subject would require a lengthened dissertation. We may content ourselves with saying that it is the office of education, not only to discipline some of the faculties, but to awaken, call out, and exercise them all so far as this can be usefully done in boyhood; to awaken tastes that may be developed in after life; to impart early habits of reading, thought, and observation; and to furnish the mind with such knowledge as is wanted at the outset of life. A young man is not well educated—and indeed is not educated at all—who cannot reason or observe or express himself easily and correctly, and who is unable to bear his part in cultivated society from ignorance of things which all who mix in it are assumed to be acquainted with. He is not well educated if all his information is shut up within one narrow circle, and he has not been taught at least that beyond what he has been able to acquire lie great and varied fields of knowledge, some of which he may afterwards explore if he has inclination and opportunity to do so. The kind of knowledge which is necessary or useful, and the best way of exercising and disciplining the faculties, must vary, of course, with the habits and acquirements of the age and the society in which his life is to be spent. Thus, when Latin was the common language of educated men, it was of primary importance to be able to speak and write Latin; so long as French is, though in a different manner and degree, a common channel of communication among educated persons in Europe, a man can hardly be called well educated who is ignorant of French. The mental faculties of men remain much the same, but the subjects on which, and the circumstances in which, they are to be exerted, vary continually. The best form of discipline, therefore, may not be the same in the 19th as it was in the 16th century, and the information which will be serviceable in life is sure to be very different. Hence, no system of instruction can be framed, which will not require modification from time to time. The highest and most useful office of education is certainly to train and discipline; but it is not the only office. And we cannot but remark that whilst in the busy world too great a value perhaps is sometimes set upon the actual acquisition of knowledge, and too little upon that mental discipline which enables men to acquire

and turn it to the best account, there is also a tendency which is exactly the reverse of this, and which is among the besetting temptations of the ablest schoolmasters; and that if very superficial men may be produced by one of these influences, very ignorant men are sometimes produced by the other.

The objections which have been commonly made to any extension of the old course of study are of a more or less practical character. It is said that many things which ought to be learned ought not to be learned at school, and are best acquired before going thither, or after leaving it; that they cannot be imparted there effectively nor without injury to more important studies, without dissipating the attention and overloading the mind; that the capacity for learning which an average boy possesses is, after all, very limited, and his capacity for forgetting very great; that ability is rare and industry not very common; that if the apparent results are small, they do not quite represent the real benefit received; and that the actual results, such as they are, are the best which in practice it is possible to obtain.

There is truth in this, but not enough to support the conclusions it has often been used to establish. These arguments, in fact, have been employed against all the improvements which have been already introduced into our great schools, and introduced with proved success.

It is quite true that much less, generally speaking, can be mastered and retained by a young mind than theorists might suppose; and true that it is not easy to win steady attention from a high-spirited English lad, who has the restless activity and love of play that belong to youth and health, who, like his elders, thinks somewhat slowly, and does not express himself readily, and to whom mental effort is troublesome.

But these are difficulties which it is the business of our schoolmaster to contend with, and which careful and skilful teaching may to some extent overcome. If a youth, after four or five years spent at school, quits it at nineteen, unable to construe an easy bit of Latin or Greek without the help of a dictionary, or to write Latin grammatically, almost ignorant of geography and of the history of his own country, unacquainted with any modern language but his own, and hardly competent to write English correctly, to do a simple sum, or stumble through an easy proposition of Euclid, a total stranger to the laws which govern the physical world, and to its structure, with an eye and hand unpractised in drawing, and without knowing a note of music, with an uncultivated mind and no taste for reading or ob-

servation, his intellectual education must certainly be accounted a failure, though there may be no fault to find with his principles, character, or manners. We by no means intend to represent this as a type of the ordinary product of English public-school education; but speaking both from the evidence we have received and from opportunities of observation open to all, we must say that it is a type much more common than it ought to be, making ample allowance for the difficulties before referred to, and that the proportion of failures is therefore unduly large.

It is true also that, besides what is learnt at school by the boy, much may and ought to be acquired by the child, and much more by the man. But that boys come very ill-prepared to school is the general complaint of the masters whom we have examined; and this evil, we regret to say, seems to be on the increase. Little boys are found to have learnt less at home, we have been assured, than used formerly to be the case. On the other hand, there are many men, we believe, who do not learn much after they leave school, because few men read much, for want of inclination or leisure. There are those, undoubtedly, who are learning all their lives, and with such persons the acquisitions of boyhood are as nothing to those of their maturer years; but the number is not large. The schools have it in their power, as we have already pointed out, to remedy to a certain extent the former of these deficiencies, by a stricter examination on entrance; and it should be their aim at least to diminish the latter by opening the minds of their scholars and implanting tastes which are now wanting. But the chances of leisure after entrance into active life must always be precarious. The school has absolute possession of the boy during four or five years, the most valuable years of pupilage, the time when the powers of apprehension and memory are brightest, when the faculty of observation is quick and lively, and he is forming his acquaintance with the various objects of knowledge. Something surely may be done during that time in the way, not of training alone, but of positive acquisition, and the school is responsible for turning it to the best account. The objection that any extension of the course will overtask the time and attention of the scholar will be best considered when we have stated what extension we propose. It will be found to be a very moderate one.

The importance of arithmetic and mathematics is already, as we have seen, recognised in every school, and it is only necessary that they should be taught more effectively. The arithmetical and

mathematical course should, we think, include arithmetic, so taught as to make every boy thoroughly familiar with it, and the elements of geometry, algebra, and plane trigonometry. We agree with the Astronomer Royal, Sir C. Lyell, and Dr Whewell, in thinking it very desirable that in the case of the more advanced students the course should comprise also an introduction to applied mathematics.

One modern language, at least now forms part of the regular course of every school but Eton. We are of opinion that all the boys at every school should, in some part at least of their passage through it, learn either French or German.

In saying this, we do not overlook what may be urged on behalf of Italian. To be ignorant of Italian is undoubtedly a misfortune for any man of cultivated mind. No French or German poet can be placed on a level with Dante: no poetical literature has exercised so strong or so beneficial an influence on our own as that of Italy in its palmy days; and there will probably never be a time when the true poetical artist, in this country or elsewhere, will cease to derive aid and inspiration from old Italian sources. But these considerations do not go far towards determining the question whether the Italian language should be placed as a branch of school-work on an equality with German. With German, we say, because French has acknowledged claims on which it is not necessary to dwell. In making a selection of this kind, regard must be had to the character of the languages among which the choice lies, their symmetry of structure and grammatical regularity,—to their philological importance in reference to other languages, especially those cognate to our own,—to their utility as channels of intercourse,—to the interest and value, for modern purposes, of the literature written in them, the stores of thought and knowledge which they unlock, and the intellectual power and influence of the peoples by whom they are spoken,—lastly, to the demand which actually exists for them respectively, since a boy who cannot acquire at a public school what his parents want for him, will probably go elsewhere for it, and thus lose, wholly or partially, the benefits of a public school training. In all of these respects it must, we think, be admitted that German has at the present day the advantage over Italian; and this advantage appears more marked when we reflect that the boys for whom the choice has to be made are already learning Latin, and perhaps French also. For Italian, still more than French, is a modern dialect of Latin, and a Latin scholar can easily master it enough to read it with pleasure, though not, per-

haps, to write or speak it well; whilst an introduction to German acquaints him with a new tongue, representing a distinct and important family of tongues. We might advert also to the access which German affords to the literature of other nations through the remarkable abundance and excellence of its translations; but it is needless to pursue the subject further. For these reasons we cannot recommend that Italian should find a place in the regular course of school-work, to the exclusion of either French or German, or side by side with them, though we should be glad to see opportunities of acquiring it provided for those whose parents wish them to do so.

Natural science, with such slight exceptions as have been noticed above, is practically excluded from the education of the higher classes in England. Education with us is, in this respect, narrower than it was three centuries ago, whilst science has prodigiously extended her empire, has explored immense tracts, divided them into provinces, introduced into them order and method, and made them accessible to all. This exclusion is, in our view, a plain defect and a great practical evil. It narrows unduly and injuriously the mental training of the young, and the knowledge, interests, and pursuits of men in maturer life. Of the large number of men who have little aptitude or taste for literature, there are many who have an aptitude for science, especially for science which deals, not with abstractions, but with external and sensible objects; how many such there are can never be known, as long as the only education given at schools is purely literary; but that such cases are not rare or exceptional can hardly be doubted by any one who has observed either boys or men. Nor would it be an answer, were it true, to say, that such persons are sure to find their vocation sooner or later. But this is not true. We believe that many pass through life without useful mental employment, and without the wholesome interest of a favourite study, for want of an early introduction to one for which they are really fit. It is not, however, for such cases only, that an early introduction to natural science is desirable. It is desirable, surely, though not necessary, for all educated men. Sir Charles Lyell has remarked on the advantage which the men of literature in Germany enjoy over our own, in the general acquaintance which the former possess with what is passing in the scientific world; an advantage due to the fact that natural science to a greater or less extent is taught in all the German schools. To clergymen and others who pass most of their lives in the country, or who, in country or town, are brought much

into contact with the middle and lower classes, an elementary knowledge of the subject, early gained, has its particular uses; and we believe that its value, as a means of opening the mind and disciplining the faculties, is recognised by all who have taken the trouble to acquire it, whether men of business, or of leisure. It quickens and cultivates directly the faculty of observation, which in very many persons lies almost dormant through life, the power of accurate and rapid generalization, and the mental habit of method and arrangement; it accustoms young persons to trace the sequence of cause and effect; it familiarises them with a kind of reasoning which interests them, and which they can promptly comprehend; and it is perhaps the best corrective for that indolence which is the vice of half-awakened minds, and which shrinks from any exertion that is not, like an effort of memory, merely mechanical. With sincere respect for the opinions of the eminent schoolmasters who differ from us in this matter, we are convinced that the introduction of the elements of natural science into the regular course of study is desirable, and we see no sufficient reason to doubt that it is practicable.

We say the elements, because the teaching must necessarily be elementary. Elementary teaching, thoroughly understood as far as it goes, will satisfy the purposes in view, and we do not desire, nor indeed do the distinguished men who have urged upon us the claims of their special studies propose, that natural science should occupy a large space in general education. Under the array of hard names, invented to designate its various branches, lie assemblages of intelligible facts bound together for the most part by simple reasoning; and the opinions expressed by men eminently qualified to judge, supported by the results actually gained both in this country and in Germany, lead us to believe that class-teaching for an hour or two in the week, properly seconded, will be found to produce substantial fruits.

From our present point of view, natural science may be taken as dividing itself into two great branches, the one consisting of chemistry and physics, or the general laws of matter treated experimentally, the other of natural history and physiology, sciences of observation and classification. These branches run into each other, for they are but parts of one vast subject; but they appeal to different faculties. "Physics," says Dr Acland, "are educationally fundamental to all natural sciences. No person is a chemist unless he has some knowledge of physics, and no person can be a physiologist who is not, to a certain extent, both a physicist and a chemist." The

sciences of experiment, viewed in this light, logically precede those of observation. In the German schools, on the other hand, where a uniform scheme is established which is the product of much inquiry and experience, an introduction to natural history, in a wide sense, precedes an introduction to physics.* Whether the logical order of these sciences is that in which they may best be studied—whether the order most suitable for a mature intellect is most fit also for the opening faculties of a boy—at what age or point of intellectual progress the subject or any part of it should be taken up, in what manner it should be taught, and how far it should be pursued, are questions which we cannot pretend to determine absolutely; they must be left to be settled by experience, and by the inquiries and deliberate judgment of the various governing bodies. It is desirable, however, that instruction in both branches should be provided, if possible, in every school; though it may not be desirable that both should be taught to every boy. Some difficulty will be found at first in obtaining good school-books, and competent teachers; but the demand will create a supply. If Oxford or Cambridge men are wished for, they will not long be wanting when a certain number of assistant-masterships in great schools are added to the scanty opportunities of gaining a livelihood now open to students of natural science.

We are of opinion that every boy should learn either music or drawing, during a part at least of his stay at school. Positive inaptitude for the education of the ear and voice, or for that of the hand and eye, is we believe rare; and these accomplishments are useful as instruments of training and valuable possessions in after life.

From the observations which we have made on the study of history and geography, it will have appeared that greater attention should, in our opinion, be paid to them than they now receive at most of the schools. A taste for history may be gained at school; the habit of reading intelligently should certainly be acquired there, and few books can be intelligently read without some study of history, and no history without geography. A master who knows these subjects himself will not, we believe, be at a loss for means of teaching them, if he feels that to do so is a part of his duty which is entitled to its share of time. We desire also to see more attention to English com-

* Thus during the two hours a week devoted in those schools to the natural sciences, it is usual, we believe, in the lowest forms to teach zoology in the winter months, and botany in the summer months, and in one form a course of mineralogy; while physics are exclusively the subjects of instruction in the highest forms.

position and orthography. A command of pure grammatical English is not necessarily gained by construing Latin and Greek, though the study of the classical languages is, or rather may be made, an instrument of the highest value for that purpose.

It may, perhaps, be objected that there is not time for such a course of study as we have described, and that it could not be attempted without injury to classics; that the working hours are already long enough; that not more than a certain quantity of work can be put into a certain number of hours, and that a boy's head will not hold more than a certain quantity of knowledge. It is not, of course, a conclusive answer to this objection that it has been urged before against changes which have been made, and made successfully. Until a few years ago, there was no time for mathematics; at Eton, even now, it is deemed impossible to find time for French. Yet scholarship is none the worse, and general education is much the better, for the introduction of mathematics; Eton scholarship, in the opinion of Dr Oke, has improved during his recollection, and the Eton scholarship of the present day can hardly claim superiority over that of some other schools, which can afford to modern languages a fair share of time. There would be reason, therefore, to distrust the objection, had we no other means of judging of it. But we are persuaded that by effective teaching time can be found for these things without encroaching on the hours of play; and that room may be made for them, by taking trouble, in the head of any ordinary boy. We are satisfied that of the time spent at school by nine boys out of ten much is wasted, which it is quite possible to economise. Time is economised by increasing attention; attention is sharpened and kept alive by a judicious change of work. A boy can attend without flagging to what interests him, and what he attends to he can generally retain; but without real attention there can be no progress, and without progress no intellectual discipline worth the name. The great difficulty of a public school, as every master knows, is simple idleness, which is defended by numbers and entrenched behind the system and traditions of the place, and against which, if he be active, he wages a more or less unequal war. We are not without hope that, by the changes which we are about to recommend with respect to the schools collectively and separately, this evil may be considerably abated; and we entertain no doubt, that without sacrificing the diligent to the idle, or health to work, two or three hours a week may be advantageously spared for natural science, as

two or three have been spared for mathematics, and two or three for French.

The extent to which the several subjects should be pursued may well vary in different schools according to their traditional practice, the advantages which they respectively possess, the class from which their scholars are chiefly drawn, or the objects at which they especially aim; and may vary in each school with the bent or future destination of individual boys. Natural science in some schools, modern languages in others, may be taught in every form up to the highest, in others only in certain selected forms. One school may teach only one modern language, another two. One boy again may, by natural capacity and by the use of such facilities as the school affords him, advance far into a study of which another only passes the threshold. In these respects we desire to see ample liberty freely used. But this liberty has its natural limits; and we think it clear that in every school without exception the scheme of study should be so arranged that every boy who passes through it should be taught, and taught effectively, every branch of the regular course of study.

We have spoken hitherto of the course and subjects of study. The recommendations which we shall make concerning the manner of teaching these subjects, and the arrangement of the school for instruction in them respectively, must necessarily stand upon somewhat different ground, and must be themselves of unequal force. Some of them are, in our opinion, of essential importance—all advisable in a greater or less degree.

1. It is essential that every part of the regular course of study should have assigned to it a due proportion of the whole time given to study,—a proportion to be measured by its requirements, and by its relative importance.

The following scheme for the distribution of the school or class lessons in a week, is suggested as furnishing a comparative scale:—

I. Classics, with History and Divinity	11
II. Arithmetic and Mathematics . . .	3
III. French or German	2
IV. Natural Science	2
V. Music or Drawing	2
	<hr/>
	20

It is here assumed that the school lessons take about an hour each, and that they will be such as to demand for preparation in the case of classics ten additional hours, and in those of modern languages and natural science respectively at least

two additional hours, in the course of the week; and that composition will demand about five hours.*

2 It is essential that every branch of the regular course of study should be promoted by the stimulus of reward and punishment, and that this stimulus should, as far as possible, be real and effective.

We do not, of course, mean that all rewards should be open equally to all branches of study. This point requires a little explanation. The ordinary forms of reward are—

Promotion within each form (or, as it is commonly called, taking places) and from one form to another;

Prizes and exhibitions or scholarships, to be held either at school or after leaving school.

With respect to promotion it is further to be observed that as a general rule the classical forms and these alone are considered to mark each boy's rank or *status* in the school, whilst the form or class in which he is placed in any subject other than classics denotes merely the progress he has made in that subject. Not only is this the case, but the arrangement of the school for mathematics and for modern languages, where these form a part of the course, is, as we have already observed, generally made subordinate to the arrangement of it for classics. The boys in two or three consecutive classical forms or sub-divisions of classical forms are released at the same time from their classical work and sent together to the school of mathematics or French, where they are re-arranged according to their proficiency. It follows that a boy cannot advance in one study much faster than he does in another; and whatever his aptitude for, or acquirements in, French or mathematics, he can never far outstrip in these studies those with whom he is on an equality in classics.

a. We have been unable to satisfy ourselves that this mode of arranging the school for non-classical lessons is demanded by necessity or convenience, and it evidently places a check upon rapid and sustained progress in these subjects. We are, therefore, of opinion that, for instruction in every subject other than classics, the school should be re-distributed into a series of forms wholly independent of the classical forms, and that boys should be promoted from form to form according to their proficiency in that subject, irrespectively of their progress in any other subject.

* In this scale and the scale of marks which follows, it is assumed that all the branches of the course are being pursued together. Some variation would be necessary in applying the scales to parts of a school in which this was not done, or to such cases as are indicated in the next section.

b. We think it essential that every non-classical subject (except music and drawing), in every part of the school in which it is compulsory, should affect the promotion from one classical form to another, and the place given to each boy in such promotion, as indeed in certain instances is already the case with respect to mathematics and some other subjects. Thus, if natural science is compulsory on all boys in the fourth and fifth (classical) forms of a school, each boy's proficiency in natural science should contribute, according to a certain scale of marks, to the rise from the fourth form to the fifth, and from the fifth to the form next above it, and should also help to determine the place assigned him, on each promotion, in his new form.

A scale of marks for this purpose should be settled by the governing body, or by the head master with the approbation of the governing body, and amended if necessary from time to time.

It is essential that the scale should be such as to give substantial weight and encouragement to the non-classical studies.

The following approximation to a scale is suggested as indicating the relative weight, which in our opinion may fairly be assigned to the various subjects.*

Classics, with History and Divinity, not less than $\frac{1}{2}$ nor more than $\frac{3}{4}$.

Mathematics, not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ nor more than $\frac{3}{8}$.

Modern Languages " $\frac{1}{8}$ " " $\frac{1}{8}$.

Natural Science " $\frac{1}{8}$ " " $\frac{1}{8}$.

The three non-classical subjects combined, $\frac{1}{2}$.

c. It is highly important that these three non-classical studies should be further encouraged by prizes appropriated to them respectively; and also, where the school possesses exhibitions and this is practicable, by giving them a share of such exhibitions. We should be glad to see prizes and distinctions conferred periodically, first, for eminently rapid and well-sustained progress in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively; and, secondly, for the greatest proficiency in each subject in proportion to age. We think it also desirable that the school lists issued periodically should contain the names of all boys separately arranged in the order of their merit and place in the classical school, and also, once at least in the year, separately arranged in the order of merit and place in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively. Special prizes should be given for proficiency in music and drawing, but these studies

* See the preceding note.

should not be taken into account in determining the places of the boys in the school.

In recommending that classics should continue to hold a principal place in the course of study, we have not been blind to the tendency which a principal study has to encroach upon and unduly depress those associated with it, to monopolise the energies of the masters and draw to itself the whole respect and attention of the boys. This

tendency is probably inevitable, but it should be counteracted, if the other studies are to be pursued seriously and usefully, by such means as are not incompatible with the freedom and general progress of the school, and particularly by giving to the studies themselves their fair shares in the common stimulants to industry, and securing a becoming position to their respective teachers.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, 1863-64.



HE Report has reached us too late in the month to allow of our presenting our readers with our usual abstract of its tables and of the Inspector's reports, or with any critical remarks upon these, in our present number. We shall best prepare the way for this, by inserting here the chief portions of the Committee's General Report to Her Majesty. After some preliminary explanations of the changes (chiefly as regards the Inspectors and their districts) which make the year 1863 exceptional and transitionary, the Report proceeds:—

"During the year 1863, as compared with 1862, the number of schools, or of departments of schools under separate teachers, which were actually inspected, was increased by 312, and the number of children by 35,315. The number of certificated teachers was increased by 503. The number of new school-houses built was 125, comprising (besides class-rooms) 191 principal school-rooms and 82 dwellings for teachers; 50 other schools were enlarged, improved, or furnished afresh; accommodation was created for 27,098 children, exclusive of the schools improved or newly furnished, but not enlarged.

"The inspectors visited 11,230 daily schools or departments of such schools under separate teachers. They found present in them 1,092,741 children; 9,481 certificated teachers; and 13,849 apprentices. Of the schools or departments 2,549 were for boys only; 2,357 for girls only; in 4,431 boys and girls were instructed together; 1,609 were confined to infants (children under seven years of age); and 284 to night scholars. Of the children, 600,075 were males, and 492,666 were females. The female scholars are 45·08 per cent. of the whole number. This is the highest percentage which they have yet reached. The percentage in 1859 was 43·49; in 1860 it was 44·78; in 1861 it was 45; in 1862 it was 44·78 (same as

in 1860). The per-centage of females upon the whole population over three and under fifteen years of age in 1851 was 49·7, and in 1861 was 49·81. The difference in the per-centage of female scholars is explained by the demands of a poor man's home upon the service of his daughters, particularly as the nurses of younger children, from a very early age. The inspectors also visited 40 separate training colleges, occupied by 3,109 students in preparation for the office of school-master or schoolmistress. In December last these students and 2,122 other candidates were simultaneously examined for the end of the first or second year of their training, or for admission, or for certificates as acting teachers. The inspectors also visited 179 schools for pauper children, containing 12,454 inmates, and 26 industrial schools, containing 2,159 inmates. The inspection of these two latter classes of schools is now wholly transferred to the Home Office and to the Poor Law Board, under the superintendence of which departments they are placed by law. The reasons which, in the first instance, dictated the association of the Committee of Council with the Home Office and the Poor Law Board, no longer justified the inconvenience of twofold administration, when once the educational experience of the Committee of Council had been adopted as far as it was applicable. The considerations which led the Committee of Council to withdraw from the inspection of industrial schools, and to omit them as a special class from the Revised Code, are set forth in former reports of our Committee (1860-1, pp. xi, xii; 1861-2, pp. xii, xiii). A similar measure with regard to Poor Law schools was accomplished by our Minute of 21. March 1863 (Report 1862-63, p. xlvii). The 179 Poor Law schools, and the 26 industrial schools inspected in 1863, were visited in the first half only of the year. The administration of the Committee of Council is now confined exclusively to schools which fulfil the con-

ditions of articles 4-8 in the Code, and the 64 inspectors and 20 assistants, for whom provision is made in the estimate for public education in the financial year 1864-5, will be

employed in inspecting and examining such schools only.

"In the following table the expenditure of the grant in 1863 is compared with that of 1862:—

	Amount of Grants in 1862.			Amount of Grants in 1863.			Increase.			Decrease.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Building	65,988	6	9	41,156	19	5	24,831	7	4
Maintenance of—												
Elementary Schools—												
Under Code, 1860 ...	533,182	18	9	412,681	1	7	}	37,143	14	4
Under Revised Code	83,358	2	10						
Normal Schools ...	104,700	11	8	114,216	17	1	9,516	5	5
Inspection and Administration ...	66,087	4	9	68,247	8	8	2,160	3	6
Pensions	793	6	8	640	0	0	153	6	8
Certified Industrial Schools ...	3,990	13	8	1,091	6	6	2,899	7	2
Totals	774,743	2	3	721,391	15	8	11,676	8	11	65,027	15	6
Deduct	11,676	8	11
Net Decrease in 1863 as compared with 1862	58,351	6	7

"The decrease of £24,831, 7s. 4d. in the grants for building schools during 1863 follows a decrease of £35,518, 8s. 7d. in 1862. We noticed in our last report (p. ix) some of the causes which have diminished this part of our expenditure, and among them, the reduction in 1860 of three-eighths in the rate of our grants. It is satisfactory to find that the decrease in the amount of public money expended has been considerably greater than the decrease in the number of children for whom new schools have been provided, or than the decrease in the sum voluntarily contributed by the promoters of such schools. The amount of our grants for building elementary (exclusively of normal) schools in 1863 is only 57 per cent. of the amount in 1862, but the number of children provided with new schools in 1863 is 70 per cent., and the sum raised to meet our grants 73 per cent. of the corresponding number and sum in 1862.

"The reduction would probably have been less, if the establishment of National schools in parishes containing dissenters, and not able to maintain a second school, had been provided for in the National Society's terms of union. At present, those terms often conflict with the principles which we feel bound to observe in applying public money to the permanent establishment of new schools in such parishes, and exclude our grants. This is the more to be regretted, as the parishes in question are those which have been least reached by the measures taken during the last twenty-five

years for the improvement of public education, and the erection of a decent and commodious schoolhouse is generally the first step which a new incumbent, or other new resident desirous to improve the instruction of the poor in such parishes, is anxious to take. Our recent correspondence with the National School Society, which we have already submitted to Parliament, has not removed the difficulty. Our proposal was strictly confined to enabling parents to withdraw their children from religious instruction of which they themselves disapprove; it authorized no modification of the religious instruction itself, which would have remained, as before, under the superintendence of the parochial clergyman, and the control of the bishop (on appeal). We made the proposal from a sincere desire to remove an obstacle in the way of extending education in connection with the Established Church to parts of the country where no other religious community can provide it, and we are firmly persuaded that the concession to dissenting parents, which would enable us to co-operate unreservedly in such an extension, would be found to be consistent with the objects which the National School Society was founded to promote.

"In order to compare the years 1863 and 1862, with respect to the annual grants made in each of them for the maintenance of elementary schools, it has been necessary, in the above table, to express in single sums the grants of this kind, which, under the previous Code, used to be made under

nine different heads. These subdivisions are not retained in the Revised Code. The result shews a decrease of £37,143, 14s. 4d., or 6.96 per cent. This reduction is principally due to the Revised Code. If the schools aided in 1863 under the Revised Code be compared with those aided in the same year under the Code of 1860, the rate of grant per scholar in the former case is 8s. 1d., and in the latter 10s. 6d. This is not quite the true state of the case, because the grants under the Revised Code have been made, in many instances, for fractional parts of a year, owing to changes in the dates fixed for inspection, which have been necessitated by the recent subdivision of districts. It is to be remembered also that all schools aided for the first time in 1863 have fallen under the Revised Code, and that these are naturally somewhat less advanced than schools which have been inspected and aided for several years. We are not of opinion that by the end of 1864 our estimate of 9s. 3d. per scholar will be found to have been too high. But it must not be concluded, because a school receives a smaller grant under the Revised than under the previous Code, that therefore it is less efficient than it was, or is on the way to become so. The principal part of each grant under the Revised Code depends upon the proficiency of individual scholars; in proportion as few or many of them are proficient, the grant falls or rises. But under the Code of 1860 this adjustment was wanting. The grants under that Code were paid or withheld in full, and it is evident that demerit, short of such as might warrant an entire forfeiture, might work, without having become greater than it was, considerable reductions under a different system. And as a reduction in the grant is not proof of present deterioration, so neither is it proof of future failure for want of means. As much as 53.9 per cent. of the old grants was appropriated to pupil-teachers, who received their entire remuneration from this source, and whose number, therefore, might be pushed to the maximum in each school without any increase of expense to its local funds. The head teacher was benefited by their assistance in school, and was also paid by the State for their instruction out of school. It is needless to add that, under such conditions, the maximum number of pupil-teachers was everywhere reached, and this too at a rate of payment which (proceeding from the government) was necessarily uniform for the whole country, and, therefore, extravagant in many parts of it. Again, the grants to certificated teachers were 27.5 per cent. of the whole sum, and these grants had no reference whatever to the number of

scholars: the highest grants of this kind might be, and often were, paid to teachers in the smallest schools. At the time (1846) when the grants for pupil and certificated teachers first began to be offered, they were justifiable. Good organization of elementary schools had to be taught by example. If the grants offered had not been liberal, school-managers would not have ventured on an experiment, and had grants not been appropriated to particular details, the experiment would not have taken the desired direction. The inevitable tendency to extravagance in the use of the means so offered was of minor importance, until the object had been realised, that is to say, until the managers and promoters of schools had become familiar with the type proposed to them, and satisfied to adopt it. But as soon as that point had been reached, it became the duty of those to whom the administration of the public fund for education was entrusted, to insist upon conditions that offered greater guarantees for economy, and freed contracts between managers and teachers from interference by the State. For these reasons, we regard a certain reduction in the rate of the public expenditure as quite consistent with a sustained efficiency of the schools upon which it is made. The immediate reduction we believe to be greater than will continue, as soon as schools have been more carefully classified according to the aptitude of the scholars for satisfying the several standards of examination. We regret the difficulties which every period of transition imposes. When this moment of trial is past, we believe that the more searching examination, the greater power of self-adjustment, and the greater freedom of the new system, will commend themselves to the public approval. School-managers will look to the State for a certain subsidy, and will prepare their schools to obtain it by increased attention to the individual scholars. Teachers will no longer be paid from two sources, but will look, like other persons, to their employers only. The State will inspect, examine, and pay its quota, without the embarrassment of a multitude of personal questions, in each school, respecting the share in its grants which is due to persons not in its own employment.

"The greatest, and, indeed, the only serious difficulty which we have had to encounter in passing from one code to the other, has arisen respecting the "first charge" which, under certain circumstances, certificated teachers have upon the grants received by their employers under the Revised Code. One of the principal objects of that Code is (as has just been stated) to leave managers and teachers to make their own bargains.

The article in question does not derogate from that principle. All that it provides is, that a certificated teacher must be paid by his employers a certain minimum sum (defined by reference to the former Code), unless he has agreed to take less from them. If the managers pay him less than this minimum, without his having so agreed, he has a first charge upon the public grant in their hands for the sum needful to make up the minimum. The difficulties which have arisen have been caused almost uniformly by the fact that, although agreements subsist between the managers and teachers in question, and have not been broken, both parties treat article 51-b as applicable nevertheless; whereas that article is not a guarantee that the teacher shall be paid any particular sum, but only protects him, to a certain extent, in such agreements as he may make, or until he makes them. It does not, and was not meant to, protect those teachers who leave their agreements with their employers under the Code of 1860 subsisting without modification, notwithstanding all the notice they have received of the impending change, and who cannot allege that those agreements have been broken. Teachers and managers, who have not already done so, should agree between themselves only, and without reference to any third party, what the one will give and the other take. The managers have a grant from the State to look for, but it does not differ financially from any other subscription to their funds. The teacher has nothing to look for, except from the managers; but the continuance of their grants is dependent on their paying him either a certain minimum sum, or whatever less they have agreed for.

"For an account of the operation of the Revised Code we refer to the tables at pp. 7-13 of this volume. The tables are compiled from the examination of 1828 schools, with an average attendance of 280,474 day scholars, of whom 180,005 were presented for examination, or about 64 out of every 100. This per-centage agrees curiously with that given by the Royal Commissioners (63.7 per cent.) as the proportion of children who had attended school within the last year, 100 days and upwards (p. 173). The children qualified to be examined under the Revised Code must have made up 200 attendances, which is equal to attending 100 days. The Commissioners report that children remain at school in the more favourable cases until they are about twelve, and in less favourable, ten years of age (pp. 188, 243, and 265). But they also state (p. 174) that 'even under the present conditions of school age and attendance, it would be possible for the children who attend 100 days and upwards to learn to read and write without conscious difficulty, and to perform such arithmetical operations as occur in the ordinary business of life.' The highest of the standards of examination prescribed by the Code does not go further. Of the children in schools under inspection, 28.99 per cent. are over ten years of age. Therefore, 280,474 children attending schools examined under the Revised Code ought to yield rather more than 81,000 above ten years of age. The actual number of such children presented for examination was 70,170, or 25 per cent. The rest either had not attended times enough, or were not presented by the managers for examination. Of the 70,170 scholars above ten years of age,

5,733	or	8.17	per cent.	were presented under Standard	I.
15,671	"	22.33	"	"	II.
23,236	"	33.12	"	"	III.
19,467	"	27.74	"	"	IV.
4,474	"	6.38	"	"	V.
1,589	"	2.26	"	"	VI.

Of the same children (above ten years of age), those who failed in one or other of the subjects of Standard I. were 27.45 per cent.

"	II.	"	28.71	"
"	III.	"	28.21	"

Standard IV. were 29.74 per cent.

"	V.	"	26.69	"
"	VI.	"	23.98	"

"Looking to the whole number of children presented for examination, and examined under the Revised Code, we find the following results:—

Day scholars presented for examination under—

Standard	I.	.	.	70,407	.	.	being 39 11	} per cent. of the whole number presented, viz., 180,005, out of an average attendance of 280,475.
"	II.	.	.	45,180	.	.	" 25.1	
"	III.	.	.	85,991	.	.	" 20.	
"	IV.	.	.	22,187	.	.	" 12.3	
"	V.	.	.	4,671	.	.	" 2.59	
"	VI.	.	.	1,619	.	.	" .9	

• 180,005

Number of Day Scholars presented under		Of whom failed in Reading.	Of whom failed in Writing.	Of whom failed in Arithmetic.
Standard I.	70,407	14,225 = 20.2 per cent.	12,445 = 17.68 per cent.	18,845 = 26.77 per cent.
" II.	45,180	4,900 = 10.85 "	3,635 = 8.05 "	11,406 = 25.25 "
" III.	85,991	2,802 = 6.4 "	5,526 = 15.35 "	6,822 = 18.95 "
" IV.	22,187	1,017 = 4.6 "	4,342 = 19.02 "	4,047 = 18.28 "
" V.	4,671	250 = 5.35 "	659 = 14.11 "	793 = 16.98 "
" VI.	1,619	96 = 5.93 "	208 = 12.85 "	267 = 16.49 "

Evening scholars presented for examination under—

Standard I.	1740	being 31.12	Per cent. of the whole number presented, viz., 5578 out of an average attendance of 8886.
" II.	1757	" 31.5	
" III.	1280	" 22.94	
" IV.	641	" 11.51	
" V.	97	" 1.78	
" VI.	68	" 1.18	

Number of Evening Scholars presented under		Of whom failed in Reading.	Of whom failed in Writing.	Of whom failed in Arithmetic.
Standard I.	1740	537 = 30.86 per cent.	570 = 32.76 per cent.	440 = 25.4 per cent.
" II.	1757	199 = 11.83 "	213 = 12.12 "	462 = 26.29 "
" III.	1280	96 = 7.5 "	281 = 21.95 "	296 = 23.12 "
" IV.	641	29 = 4.52 "	172 = 26.83 "	161 = 25.12 "
" V.	97	2 = 2.06 "	19 = 19.59 "	20 = 20.62 "
" VI.	68	5 = 7.94 "	7 = 11.11 "	20 = 31.75 "

"Excluding the distinction of standards, the total number of failures to the total number of examinations in reading, writing, and arithmetic was 17.1 per cent.; in day schools only, 17 per cent.; in evening schools only, 21.1 per cent.

"In like manner, excluding the distinction of standards, the per-centage of the number of failures to the number of examinations under each subject is as follows:—

—	Reading.	Writing.	Arithmetic.
Day scholars .	12.66	14.90	28.43
Evening scholars .	15.56	22.62	25.08
Total .	12.74	15.13	28.48

"The grants allowed for children under six years of age do not depend upon their examination individually. A grant of 6s. 6d. is allowed for each such child who has attended the prescribed number of times in a school where the inspector reports that they are instructed suitably to their age, and in a manner not to interfere with the

instruction of the older children. The number of such children on whom grants were allowed was 43,798, or 15.62 per cent. of the average number of children attending the same schools.

"Excluding children under six years of age, the per centage of those over ten years of age to those over six years of age, who were examined in the day schools, is 38.96. Of the children, therefore, presented for examination, 38.96 per cent. ought, according to age, to have been able to pass Standard VI. As matter of fact, however, the proportion of such children presented above Standard III. was only 14.18 per cent. of the whole number presented, and the proportion of them who passed without failure in reading, writing, or arithmetic, above Standard III., was only 10.09 per cent. of the whole number presented. In other words, the aggregate number of children who passed Standards IV., V., and VI. is little more than one-fourth of those who ought to have been able to pass Standard VI.

"These calculations are made (it must be repeated) upon children who have attended their schools for 100 whole days within the past year, and who, therefore, in the opinion of the Royal Commissioners, have attended regularly enough (assuming their attendance in this particular year

not to have been exceptionably good) to acquire the knowledge necessary to pass the standard appropriate to their age. It must be repeated also that the children above ten years of age in the majority of schools represent their yearly contribution to the instruction of the next generation of working men, whose ranks most of such children are about to join. If any of them, going to remain longer in school, and able to pass Standard VI., have been presented under a lower standard, lest, by Article 46, future grants for them should be lost, this plea does not, at any rate, excuse presenting them below Standard IV.

"The result proves, indisputably, one of two conclusions. The inability of the older children to pass under their proper standard was either assumed, in order to save the grant from the test of serious examination, or it was real. If it was assumed, our original proposal to examine according to age (Report, 1861-2, p. 11) would have protected the test, and our 9th supplementary rule, 'to reduce the grant unless at least one class be presented above Standard III,' although a less effectual measure, will check extreme cases of abuse. If, on the other hand, the inability of the older children was real, there can be no greater proof that the time had arrived when a change in the existing system was imperative. The inability, doubtless, was not wholly assumed nor wholly real. It is likely, in no small degree, to have been of that mixed character which marks the absence of practical facility, just as the number of 'marks' which appear in place of signatures in marriage registers signifies (at least) such a want of confidence in the power to write, as does not differ much from the want of the power itself.

"The good moral effects of the schools under inspection have never been disputed; they are for the most part well found in all the appliances of instruction, and the teachers are respectably qualified. But it is evident that in these same schools large numbers of children have failed to be benefited as they ought, or as their successors are likely to be under a system of grants dependent upon the examination of individual scholars. We do not believe that there has been much conscious neglect on the part of managers or teachers, but that the great effort needed in the first instance to provide due means of instruction, and to introduce good organization and methods, caused schools to be regarded from too general a point of view, and without sufficient attention to the knowledge which each child was really acquiring in them.

"The net amount actually paid to 1828 schools, containing an average attendance of 289,310 scholars, which were inspected and examined

under the Revised Code before 31st December 1863, was—

		Per centage on Total.	
	£	s.	d.
1. For scholars who had attended 200 times and upwards in the year—			
(a) Examined,	53,412	4	11
(b) Under six years old, and not examined,	12,280	14	1
2. Upon the average number in attendance throughout the year.	50,680	14	6
Add under Articles 51-4	2,094	16	8
difference between additions and reductions,	1,676	12	3
Total,	£117,341	16	11

"The grants for examination and attendance would have been greater by £1890, or 1.62 per cent., had not 15,641 of the examinations successfully passed in reading, writing, or arithmetic been passed by children above the class contemplated in Article 4.

"The amount paid to evening schools was only £1926, 6s. 8d., out of the total sum of £117,341, 16s. 11d. The limited period of the year during which such schools meet, and the difficulty of assembling their scholars by day, present serious obstacles in the way of aiding them through examination. We have had several plans under consideration. During the summer months a large portion of the evening schools do not meet. Before they are again in general operation, we shall have had time to introduce such improvements in the administration of grants to them as we may find to be practicable.

"We see no reason to think that the system of pupil-teachers will fail under the Revised Code, whether they are regarded as junior instructors in elementary schools, or as candidates for admission into Normal schools. The number of pupil-teachers, 2971, admitted to apprenticeship in 1863 was greater than in 1862 by 209, and only less by 13 than the number admitted in 1861 under the previous code. The reduction of 1572 in the total number of pupil-teachers, 14,180, at the end of 1863, as compared with the total number, 15,752, at the end of 1862, is partly explained in the following extract from our last Report, p. x.

"The Minute of 4th May 1859 cancelled all exceptions to the allowance of one pupil-teacher to every forty scholars, and prohibited the apprenticeship of more than four pupil-teachers under any circumstances to the same master or mistress. As the apprenticeship lasts for five years, an excess of admissions in any particular year does not disappear until five years later, and when it disappears it makes a void which is not due to anything unusual in the year in which it occurs. Thus, the total number of pupil-teachers had increased in the year—

1856 by 1721	1859 by 1200
1857 by 1977	1860 by 811
1858 by 1802	1861 by 742

"It is evident, therefore, that in the years in which the numbers 1721, 1977, and 1802 disappear by the expiration of apprenticeships will shew a decrease, as compared with the years in which the numbers 1200, 811, and 742 disappear, quite independently of the causes at work in those years themselves.

"The reduction is in part also due to the fact that the managers of schools, who had obtained from the Committee of Council under the Code of 1860, a greater number of pupil-teachers than they are required to maintain at their own expense under the Revised Code, have reduced their staff of pupil-teachers to the latter scale.

"The number of students (2739) now resident in Normal schools is less by 513 than the number resident at the beginning of 1863. But the chief part of this reduction (321 out of 513) is in Scotland, where the number of students in training was confessedly in excess of the demand for trained teachers. Our grants in support of Normal schools have not hitherto been limited by this demand, but will henceforth be wholly so. The number of students proves that those most interested continue to have confidence in a sustained demand."



Correspondence.

LAWSON'S GEOGRAPHIES.

SIR,—In the *Museum* of last month, the reviewer, in noticing a recent publication of mine, indirectly charges me with "plagiarism" and "book-making." Now, as to the first charge, I deny that an author who copies from himself can be guilty of plagiarism, though he may lay himself open to the charge of "book-making." And with reference to his second charge, I contend that there is by no means "such a case" as the reviewer appears to make out. A careful comparison of Part I. of the "Outlines," with Part II. of the "British Empire" will shew that the one is by no means a mere abstract of the other; but that they are written on totally different plans, and discuss totally different topics. But even supposing the resemblance between the two works was greater than it really is, surely it is not an uncommon thing for authors to adapt text-books intended for one class of students, to the wants of another class. I confess it would have been better to have made some reference in the preface to the new work, respecting its obligations to the former one; but surely this simple omission does not convert an innocent and every-day proceeding into "plagiarism" and "book-making."—I remain, &c.

W. LAWSON,

TRAINING COLLEGE, DURHAM,
June 9. 1864.

NOTE BY THE REVIEWER.—In his last sentence, Mr Lawson admits pretty nearly the whole of the case which we brought against him. We said, in our notice of the book that, "in justice to himself and to the public, Mr Lawson ought to have made some reference in either of his prefaces to the fact we have mentioned." Mr Lawson says, "I confess it would have been better to have made some refer-

ence in the preface to the new work, respecting its obligations to the former one." Now the essence of plagiarism consists in its giving forth as new what has been given to the public before, whether by the same man or by another man really matters not. For example, a man who had bought Mr Lawson's first book, and afterwards, from a conviction of the author's ability, purchased his second book, might justly complain, on reaching page 19, and comparing it with page 99 of the earlier work, that he had been made, or at least allowed, to pay twice over for the same thing. Had he been duly warned of the similarity of certain portions of the two books, he might grumble at Mr Lawson as a book-maker, but he would have no right to complain of injustice, or literary fraud. The whole question, therefore, really lies in the giving of the warning, in the public acknowledgment of the obligation. When this is fairly done, the public may safely be left to decide how far the use a man makes of his literary capital is legitimate. When this is not done, the public is very apt to suspect that the author had his own reasons for concealing the circumstance. Certainly an author's literary capital is his own, and he is entitled to expend it as he thinks best. This is not the question. The question is, whether he is entitled to expend it *twice over*, and to ask the public to pay for it twice over, without warning of any kind. But this has reference to the abstract question; for we readily and fully acquit Mr Lawson of any intention to impose upon the public. We have no doubt that the "omission," which he acknowledges, will be rectified on the first opportunity. This discussion, however, may serve to put the compilers of school-books upon their guard against a vice to which, unfortunately, they are too prone, and of which the present is a comparatively mild and harmless instance.

Notices of Books.

The Syntax and Synonyms of the Greek Testament.

By WILLIAM WEBSTER, M.A., Late Fellow of Queens' College, Cambridge. London: Rivington. 1864.

This book is a conglomerate of chapters, having this point in common, that they all relate somehow or other to the New Testament Greek. Besides discussing the syntax and synonyms, Mr Webster has a chapter on the peculiarities of Hellenistic Greek, another on the formation of words, and another entitled "Hints on the Authorized Version."

Mr Webster boldly announces that his work is the merest compilation. He says that he proposed to himself "to compile a syntax which should embrace all that was valuable in Winer, and all that was applicable in Donaldson." "From the large and copious use," he says, "which I have made of Dr Donaldson's 'Complete Greek Grammar,' I may be considered to have fulfilled one part of my original design." We can assure our readers, from a rather minute comparison, that Mr Webster's words may be fully relied on. Donaldson's arrangement, classification, and very frequently his words, have been transplanted from his own grammar to this, and even his illustrations from the classical writers have been borrowed, in considerable quantity, by Mr Webster. We do not know how Dr Donaldson would have liked such an appropriation of his literary labour; but at any rate Mr Webster has concealed none of his obligations.

"Of Winer," he says further, "I have made very little use." We can also bear testimony to Mr Webster's trustworthiness in this matter. We question whether he has carefully studied Winer at all, and certainly he has misunderstood some portions of Winer's book, if he has read them. He thinks that Winer has been extravagantly praised, and says, "The grammar of Dr S. Ch. Schirlitz (Giessen), although it is but little known, is a decidedly better work." We question very much whether Mr Webster is qualified to judge. We are in doubt whether he has even read Schirlitz carefully. Schirlitz's work professes to be an attempt to popularise the results of recent investigations into New Testament Greek; and Schirlitz describes Winer's book as forming a new epoch, as a storehouse of information. In fact, he allows that Winer's work is *the* work on the subject, and he would be utterly astonished, and considerably amused to hear his work praised above that of Winer's by any one professing to be a scholar.

Both Winer and Schirlitz devote a considerable portion of their space to a history of the treatment

of New Testament Greek, and to an investigation into its real character. Mr Webster either has not studied this portion of Winer and Schirlitz, or he has not caught their meaning. His chapter on the peculiarities of Hellenistic Greek shows a mind utterly at sea in regard to the various opinions which have been propounded respecting the nature of Hellenistic Greek, and discordant theories are so placed side by side that it is plain the writer is unconscious that they are discordant. The very name Hellenistic is a puzzle to him. "The word 'Ελληνιστής,'" he says, "was generally applied by the inhabitants of Attica to all foreigners who learnt to speak their language by the ear for political purposes, commercial designs, or social intercourse, without giving accurate attention to the usages and expressions of the Attic dialects." This is the second sentence in Mr Webster's first chapter, and is certainly an extraordinary one. If he had read either Winer or Schirlitz, he would have found that the word 'Ελληνιστής does not occur in any Attic writer in any sense whatsoever; that it means in the New Testament a Greek-speaking Jew; and that the term Hellenistic was applied to the New Testament Greek, because it was supposed to be the peculiar dialect of Greek-speaking Jews. Whether it is a peculiar dialect, or whether it should be called a dialect at all, has been recently doubted; and we think the evidence strong that it was nothing but the popular or vulgar language interspersed with a few Hebraisms. Mr Webster has heard of some such theory, but not comprehending it exactly, he boldly asserts that, "when we speak of Hellenistic Greek, we must include in our conception the speech of Magna Græcia, the south-east of Italy with Sicily, of the colonies included in the discontinuous or sporadic Greece, of the settlements in Asia Minor, and those which were founded by the success which attended the Macedonian arms." Mr Webster states in the commencement of this sentence, that classical Greek was the Greek spoken in Græcia Antiqua, or Greece proper. And we are inclined to infer, from the whole sentence, that Mr Webster believes that there were but two kinds of Greek spoken, classical Greek in Greece proper, and Hellenistic Greek in the rest of the world. We are afraid, however, that facts are against him—that it is probable that some of the rabble, even of Athens, did not speak classical Greek, that the Boeotians and Arcadians did not speak classical Greek, that in fact very many of the people in Greece proper did not speak classical Greek, and the theory which Mr Webster is confounding is based on the supposition

that nobody in Greece in the time of Christ spoke purely classical Greek, but that educated men wrote it, that the spoken language differed somewhat from the written. Then again we do not know exactly what kind of Greek was spoken by educated men in Italy, or Asia Minor, or Syria, but we know that the Greek of their writings is not Hellenistic. Whatever else may have been the Greek of Marcus Aurelius, or Lucian, or Philostratus, certainly it was not Hellenistic.

We have no space for exhibiting more of the extraordinary statements made by Mr Webster in this introductory chapter. They are certainly astonishing to us when we consider that he professes to have read Winer and Schirlitz. They shew that he is utterly ignorant of the researches that have been made into the Alexandrian dialect by Sturz and others. He seems to have no acquaintance with the history of the Greek language as a language. He calls the passages which Winer has adduced to throw light on this history, "an accumulation of unnecessary authorities." He seems to be equally ignorant of those ecclesiastical writers whose Greek throws considerable light on that of the New Testament. And he is also ignorant of modern Greek and the use which has been made of it by Mullach and others in explaining some of the peculiarities of New Testament Greek. In fact Mr Webster has come to his work without the requisite preparation. He does not allude even to any of the grammars of the New Testament Greek in English—and he is ignorant of some of the best in German.

This ignorance vitiates the whole of the syntax. In very many cases Mr Webster can be shewn to be wrong in his translations by the usages of contemporary writers, and of modern Greek. And his hints on the authorised version are, for the most part, hints for inserting blunders both in Greek and idiomatic English.

The chapter on synonyms is pervaded by the same ignorance in regard to the real character of New Testament Greek, and occasionally bears marks of carelessness. Thus he says, "Sexual love is expressed by *ἡδύτης*," p. 187. But it is a remarkable and striking fact that the New Testament writers never use the word *ἡδύτης*, indeed seem systematically to have avoided it.

The book seems to be the result more of a desire to make a book than to advance New Testament scholarship. There is good evidence in it that Mr Webster is a careful and accurate student of the classics; but something more is required to explain the peculiarities of the New Testament. Mr Webster's book also contains numerous extracts from Vaughan and Ellicot; but these would be read with more profit in the works from which they are taken.

Aeschylus Septem contra Thebas. The Seven against Thebes of Aeschylus. From the Text of Dindorf's Third Edition. Edited, with English Notes, Critical and Explanatory, by the Rev. JAMES DAVIES, M.A., Translator of "Babrius;" Editor of "Terence" in this Series; and formerly Scholar of Lincoln College, Oxford. London: Virtue, Brothers, & Co. 1864.

This edition of the "Seven against Thebes" costs only one shilling; yet it is far superior to a great number of editions of Greek plays which cost five or ten times this sum. Mr Davies has gone to work most conscientiously. He has examined almost all the best commentaries, and extracted what was valuable from each. Though the text is taken from Dindorf's edition, Mr Davies discusses the various readings with considerable minuteness, and indeed he contrives to give a vast amount of information bearing on the text, its meaning and its subject-matter. If he errs in any direction, it is in supplying the student with too many literal translations, though perhaps the difficulty of the passages may be pleaded in most cases as an excuse.

Both the text and the notes shew great carefulness and accuracy on the part of the editor. The introduction and notes furnish evidence also of very wide reading. Mr Davies, however, seems not to have seen the Didascalia first edited by Franz. For he supposes that the "Oedipus," the "Seven against Thebes," and the "Eleusinians" formed the trilogy. The Didascalia states distinctly that the three plays of the trilogy were "Laius," "Oedipus," and the "Seven against Thebes," with the "Sphinx" as the satyric play, and its statement is generally considered to have settled the matter.

Dr F. Ahn's Practical Grammar of the German Language, with a Grammatical Index and Glossary of all the German Words. A new edition, containing numerous additions, alterations, and improvements. By DAWSON W. TURNER, D.C.L., and FREDERICK L. WEINMANN. London: Trübner and Co. 1864.

This work consists of three parts.

The first (pp. i-cx) contains introductory exercises, such as go under the name of "Ahn's First Course," but generally less infantine in thought and expression, and sometimes very much less so; e.g. (p. lxxxi) "God is a circle, of which the centre is everywhere, and the circumference nowhere."

Part second (pp. 1-107) is a regular and complete grammar; and part third (pp. 208-430) is a series of exercises on the grammar, section by section.

Accordingly, whether the empirical method be preferred, or the strict grammatical method, or a combination of both, this edition of Ahn will equally serve, and will equally be found a safe and sufficient guide.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Part IV. Block—Burthen. London: Longman & Co. June 1864.

The most important and useful discussions in this part of the Dictionary (and as the work advances it becomes more and more evident that it should be called Latham's Dictionary rather than Johnson's) are on the term Onomatopoeia, as illustrated by the combination *Bl*, on the terminations *ly* and *let*, and on the words *Boggy*, *Boiled*, *Blood-boltered*, *Both*, *Braid*, and *Brain*. We extract, without remark, the note on

ONOMATOPEIA.

"As this is the last word beginning with *Bl*, a few remarks may be made on the combination. It is one which supplies an unusually great number of words formed on the imitative or onomatopoeic principle; the principle which associates certain ideas with certain physical sounds, and which is well illustrated by words like *Hum*, *Buzz*, *Whiss*, *Biss*, *Hiss*, &c., where the sound evidently, to use a well-worn illustration, echoes to the sense.

"The sound of *b* is labial, or formed mainly by the lips. It is vocal, or sonant, as opposed to those of *p* and *f*, which are surd, or uttered as whispers. It is explosive (i.e. it cannot be prolonged), as opposed to those of *f* and *v*.

"In the expression of any notion connected with the sound of *bubbles*, the initial *b* is a natural element, whether it denotes their formation or their breaking. The extent of its application (i.e. the question as to the number of ideas which may be deduced from the physical sounds under notice) is another matter. That hurried and loose language is one of them, seems to be generally admitted. Hence few have objected to words like *Bleb*, *Blub*, *Blab*, and the derivatives which can undoubtedly be connected with them, being treated as words of which the origin is clearly physical.

"The same origin is, perhaps, generally allowed to certain words of a similar import ending in *d*; at any rate, the notion of a vesicle is common to the words *Bleb* and *Bladder*; and the notion of loose talk to the words *Blab*, *Blether*, and *Blother* in Scotch and old English, and *Plaudern*, &c., in German.

"The idea of *blowing* gives us another physical sound, the origin of numerous admitted onomatopoeic derivatives. The present *w* represents a *v*, which also, as shown by *flavi*, belonged to Latin *fo*, where the explosive labial *b* has for its equivalent the corresponding continuous *f*.

"With a final sibilant (expressive of a *hiss*) we get *Blaze*, denoting a rush of flame, and *Blast*, one of wind, with the blighting effects of flame, a word evidently connected with *Bluster*, and, perhaps, with *Blare*.

"For *Blot* Mr Wedgwood thinks we have, at the bottom, a name for the falling of a drop of liquid.

"In *Bleet*, as in *Bas*, the word is purely imitative in the strict sense of the term, upon which more is said in the Preliminary Notice.

"How much ground these onomatopoeias cover is a question upon which, probably, no two writers would agree; but it is also a question of which we may now take

leave, as belonging to Comparative Philology in general rather than to special Lexicography."—(P. 248.)

The two notes on the word *both* are elaborate and thorough, and together afford as good an example as we could find of the two departments in which this work is chiefly valuable, the etymological and the logical. But our remarks and extracts on this subject have been "crushed out," and must be reserved for next number.

The explanation that the diminutive suffix *-let* (e.g., *brook-let*, *stream-let*) is a hybrid formation, the *-l* being from the Anglo-Saxon, and the *-et* from the French, can only be accepted as that "which requires the fewest assumptions." It is evidently unsatisfactory, and Dr Latham condemns the use of the termination in coining new words.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

The Present State of Popular Education in Manchester and Salford: The substance of Seven Letters, reprinted from the "Manchester Guardian," January 5th to 27th 1864. By E. B.

These able and striking letters are the result of personal inquiry and exploration in the low districts of Manchester. They have a great interest for educationists, as shewing the deplorable state of our great manufacturing districts, in spite of the advances which popular education has recently made. The fact that there are at least 60,000 children in Manchester who should be at school, but are not, is surely worthy the attention of philanthropists.

An Abridgement of the "Practical English Grammar." By ROSCOE MORGAN, A.B. London: Longmans. 1864.

This is intended as an introduction to the author's larger work, which is a compilation, and nothing more, from original works, from more even than are contained in Mr Morgan's extensive list of authorities.

My Country: The History of the British Isles. By E. S. A. Edited by the Rev. JOHN H. BROOME. 2 vols. London: Wertheim, Mackintosh, and Hunt. 1860-62.

This is not only a protestant history of England, it is an anti-popery history, and it has special reference, wherever that is possible, to the struggle between Protestantism and Romanism in Ireland. It is well arranged and succinctly written. It consists of five parts, which, for the convenience of school-room use, may be had separately.

The Alexandra Magazine, and Woman's Social and Industrial Advocate. Nos 1 and 2. May and June. London: Jackson, Walford, and Hodder. 1864.

The number and importance of the questions that arise in connection with the employment of women, have suggested the propriety of

establishing a magazine, devoted primarily to their discussion. The "Alexandra Magazine" is intelligently and liberally conducted, and we wish it all success.

The Earth's Crust, A Handy Outline of Geology. By DAVID PAGE, F.R.S.E., F.G.S., Edinburgh: Nimmo. 1864.

Such a book as this was much wanted,—a work giving in clear and intelligible outline the leading facts of the science, without amplification or irksome details. It is admirable in arrangement, and clear, easy, and at the same time forcible, in style. It will lead, we hope, to the introduction of geology into many schools that have neither time nor room for the study of large treatises.

Pictorial Illustrations of Geography. Sheets 1-6. London: Bacon and Co. 1864.

A series of cleverly executed and well coloured

pictures to illustrate the definitions of the divisions of land and water, as island, peninsula, strait, bay, &c. The upper part of each sheet is a picture; the lower part is a corresponding plan. Between these the definitions are printed in bold type. We have here an excellent idea, well worked out.

An Etymological Dictionary of the Romance Languages; chiefly from the German of Friedrich Diez. By T. C. DONKIN, B. A. London: Williams and Norgate. 1864.

Education and School. By the Rev. EDWARD THRING, M.A., Head Master of Uppingham School. London: Macmillan & Co. 1864.

A French Eton; or Middle-Class Education and the State. By MATTHEW ARNOLD. London: Macmillan and Co. 1864.

[Our Notices of these Works unavoidably delayed.]



Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

14. In the new and revised issue of Knight's "Pictorial Shakespeare," now in course of publication, the text reading is "earthly happier." From this work we extract the following note (vol. i. p. 383), which, while it seems quite conclusive, anticipates the remarks of "Beta":—

"*Earthly happier*, more happy in an earthly sense. The reading of all the old copies is *earthlier happy*, and this has been generally followed, although Pope and Johnson proposed *earlier happy*, and Stevens *earthly happy*. We have no doubt that Capell's reading, which we have adopted, is the true one; and that the old reading arose out of one of the commonest typographical errors. The orthography of the folio (of 1623) is *earthlier happie*; if the comparative had not been used, it would have been *earthlis happie*; and it is easy to see that the *r* has been transposed."

QUENTIN.

The same quotation is made by W. (Ayr).

14. On the expression "earthlier happy," Mr Dyce has the following note:—"In this line '*earthlier happy*' has been altered to '*earthly happier*,' a more correct expression, doubtless: but Shakespeare (like his contemporaries) did not always write *correctly*." And Mr Dyce might have added, that in Shakespeare's incorrectness there often lies a deeper

meaning than grammatical correctness could give. In the present case, "earthly happier" would be more correct, but I cannot admit that it would make "the poet's meaning plainer." I take "earthlier" to modify "happy," just as the adverb *more* modifies polysyllabic adjectives. But he does not mean to say that "the rose distill'd" is *more* happy absolutely, but *more* (in an earthly sense) happy. In other words, the earthliness does not refer to the happiness, but to the *degree* of the happiness. It is not happier in an earthly sense; but happy in a more earthly sense. In order to express this, Shakespeare has here, as he has often done elsewhere, set grammar at defiance.

SIGMA.

15. The sentence "while (= at the same time) they . . . of duty only taking heed, find pleasure by the way," if considered adverbial, is dependent on the sentence introduced by "that" in the first stanza, and with it explanatory of "doom." But is it not more correct to say, that it stands in the adversative relation to the subst. sentence "that they . . . miss that," to which it is co-ordinate? In this view the reading would be:—"O righteous doom (award) *that* they, *on the other hand* (while) of duty only," &c. This arrangement, it seems to me, makes the contrast all the more striking.

QUENTIN.

QUERIES.

18. I notice some of your correspondents proposing questions from *Morell's Grammar*. Perhaps they have met with, and can solve, the following from that work:—

1. Point out the interrogative or compound adverbs in, "What are you doing?" (*Exer. 80*).

2. Select adverbs from the following, and say what they qualify, "What must my works be?" (*Exer. 81*).

Surely *what* is not an adverb in either case.

W. (Ayr).

19. Analyse the following:—

"The crime of which he has been found guilty is one which I never believed that he could have committed."

AR.

20. "The thunder clouds close o'er it, which when rent

The earth is covered thick with other clay,
Which her own clay shall cover." . . .

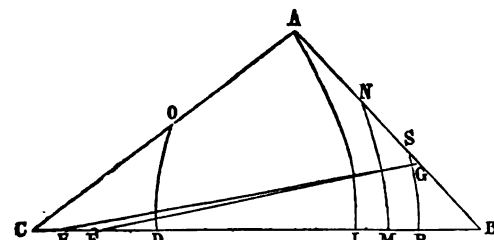
Can Byron's use of the word "which" in the first line be explained or defended, or is it simply a solecism?

W. A. C.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

7. *Solution by H. C. (Bainsford).—*



In arc RS, take any point G, and join EG and FG,—EG + GF shall be $> AC + AB$.

(I) $EG + FG > 2AC$; but $2AC > AC + AB$

$\therefore EG + FG > AC + AB$.

From (I.) it is evident the same holds good where $AB = AC$. Wherefore it is *essential* to the truth of the Proposition that the straight lines be drawn from the extremities of the side.

Solved also by *Cycloid* (Edin.)

8. *Solution by Scalar.*—Let $x, xr, xr^2 + \dots + xr^{2n-1}$ be the series.

By hypothesis $xr + xr^2 + \dots + xr^{2n-1} = a$ (I.)

$x + xr^2 + \dots + xr^{2n-2} = b$ (II.)

\therefore Dividing (I.) by (II.) we get $r = \frac{a}{b}$; again

$\therefore S_{2n} = x \frac{r^{2n} - 1}{r - 1} = x \frac{a^{2n} - b^{2n}}{b^{2n-1}(a - b)} = a + b$

$\therefore x = \frac{b^{2n-1}(a^2 - b^2)}{a^{2n} - b^{2n}}$ \therefore The series is

$\frac{b^{2n-1}(a^2 - b^2)}{a^{2n} - b^{2n}}, \frac{ab^{2n-2}(a^2 - b^2)}{a^{2n} - b^{2n}}, \dots, \frac{a^{2n-1}(a^2 - b^2)}{a^{2n} - b^{2n}}$

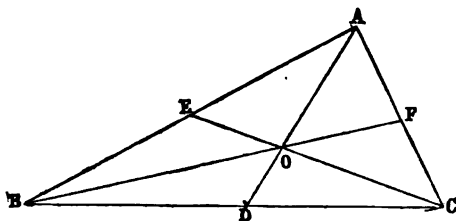
Solved also by *H. C. (Bainsford), R. + J., Cycloid (Edin.), J. S. P., and How (Irvine).*

9. *Solution by Vector.*—Let $(a^2 + b^2 + c^2)$ and $(d^2 + h^2)$ be the given factors whose product equals the sum of four squares.— $(a^2 + b^2 + c^2)(d^2 + h^2) = a^2d^2 + b^2d^2 + c^2d^2 + a^2h^2 + b^2h^2 + c^2h^2 = (ad + bh)^2 + (bd - ah)^2 + (cd)^2 + (ch)^2$ which are therefore the squares required.

Solved also by *J. S. P.*

10. (Solution by W. G. C. (Whitby).—

Let $\triangle ABC$ be any triangle in which AD , BF , and CE are given lines drawn from the three angles to bisect the opposite sides. By a well known proposition, O is the point of trisection of each of these lines. $\therefore OD$ is a third of AD , one of the given lines, while BO and OC are respectively two-thirds of BF and CE , the remaining lines; but



$$(\text{Euc. II. A.}) \quad 2BD^2 = BO^2 + OC^2 - 2OD^2$$

$$\therefore BD = \sqrt{\frac{BO^2 + OC^2 - 2OD^2}{2}}$$

$$\therefore BC = 2BD = \sqrt{2BO^2 + 2OC^2 - 4OD^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{2 \cdot \left(\frac{2BF}{3}\right)^2 + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{2CE}{3}\right)^2 - 4 \cdot \left(\frac{AD}{3}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{2BF^2 + 2CE^2 - AD^2}$$

and similarly for the other sides.

Solved also by *H. C. (Bainsford), James P., and J. S. P.*

[*Cycloid, How, and W. (Salisbury)*, have read this Proposition as if the "Query" were "construct the triangle," and the first two correspondents have solved it accordingly. This does not seem to be what *R. + J.* asks.]

QUERIES.

11. *Proposed by T. C. D.*—A circle, A , is cut by a circle, B , and at the two points of section a, b , it is touched by two more circles C and D . If from any point in the circumference of A tangents be drawn to B, C, D , their lengths will be in geometrical progression.

12. *Solution requested by Scalar.*—If a quadrilateral be divided into two parts by a line intersecting two opposite sides, the points of section of the diagonals of the two quadrilaterals thus formed, and that of the diagonals of the original quadrilateral, shall be in the same straight line.

13. *Solution requested by Vector.*—In a chest there are twenty-four balls, viz., six white, eight black, and ten red; at first there are seven balls drawn blindfold, and then again from the remaining seventeen three more. I bet that all the seven balls are red and the three balls are all black. What is my chance of winning?

Open Council.

[No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

It has been suggested to us that the question proposed last month would admit of better discussion were its terms more explicit. Holding over the papers we have received till next month,—which the pressure on our space the rather inclines us to do,—we now submit it in the following form, and beg to invite to it the attention of educationists:—

QUESTION PROPOSED.—OUGHT THE STATE TO CONTRIBUTE ANY PORTION OF THE PUBLIC FUNDS TO THE SUPPORT OF MIDDLE-CLASS SCHOOLS?

Education at Home.

I. EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

INSPECTORS' REPORTS.—*May 30.* Lord Palmerston nominated the select committee, to which Mr Clay moved as an amendment that a committee of five be nominated by the committee of electors. Lord R. Cecil objected to the amendment, as calculated to make the inquiry futile. Mr Denham objected to any committee of which the noble lord was a member. Mr W. E. Foster regretted that the hon. member for Calne (Mr Lowe) would not serve upon the committee. Sir J. Pakington said the inquiry was not to be into the conduct of Mr Lowe, but into the practice of Inspectors in furnishing reports. Mr Massey contended that it was useless to deny it to be a personal question. The mutilations must have been made by somebody, and the committee would act in a judicial character. Mr Walter wished the matter to be dropped. Mr Kinnaird believed the committee of accusers only, the accused not being present, would fail to give satisfaction. Lord Palmerston agreed to the amendment, and the debate was adjourned.

June 2. Mr Bouverie entertained a strong opinion that a committee of fifteen, chosen equally from both sides of the House, could not give a satisfactory verdict, representing, as it would certainly do, the casting vote of the chairman. In all cases of this kind a limited committee was best. Mr Gladstone suggested that there should be joined to the committee of five two gentlemen as assessors to assist in the investigation, but to have no vote; they would therefore be perfectly impartial, and not appear as judges. Mr Bright thought the difficulty arose from the House attempting to do something which every one felt to be unnecessary. No one had meant to make any imputation upon the hon. member for Calne (Mr Lowe). If it were an imputation upon his character, every member, he (Mr Bright) hoped, felt it to be unfortunate and unjust. A committee of five, with two assessors, was then appointed without a division.

June 8. Sir W. Miles reported from the General Committee on Elections that they had appointed the following members to serve on the Committee on Inspectors' Reports: Mr Dodson, Sir Phillip Egerton, Lord Hotham, Mr C. Howard, Mr Howes. The Lord Advocate and Lord R. Cecil were appointed members for the purpose of examining witnesses, but without the power of voting.

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.*—*June 2.* Mr Adderly presented about thirty petitions against this Minute. He said the Minute at first proposed to confiscate every endowment belonging to any school in England

* *May, No. 11, p. 74.*

or Scotland which received aid from Government, and to sweep all such endowments into the Treasury. Such was the unanimous feeling of the House against it, that the vice-president was obliged, in the middle of a speech supporting the Minute, to change his tactics and beat a rapid retreat. Two days after, a new minute came out, which he hoped the House would condemn as unanimously. This new minute offered to exempt from indiscriminate confiscation the small rural schools of the country, with the proviso that the endowment and grant together must not exceed 15s. per head. The vice-president and he were at issue upon a question of principle. The vice-president considered himself in charge of an eleemosynary fund, and that he had no business to give it to any one who had means of any kind to live upon. Would any parish be justified in taking their endowments for the reduction of the poor rates? If a gentleman made an endowment of £50, would it lead him to give another £50 if the Treasury pocketed the first? These endowments could be used in the shape of prizes to teachers, and thus the locality would have the value of the endowment, while they would become matters of ambition amongst teachers. Mr Walter said endowments were left by munificent persons, not to go into the pockets of the parishioners, but to support schools where otherwise schools would not exist. He objected to the endowments, whether small or great, being respected in the distribution of the Government grants. Mr Bruce was bound to admit that the course of the Privy Council had hitherto been somewhat inconsistent with respect to endowments. They had been paying considerable sums to schools receiving, by way of endowment, from £2 to £5 per head. In consequence, considerable sums had been paid by way of bonus to the masters, and reserve funds for future building had been created. The contribution of the State was simply given to supply a need. Where that need did not exist, although the grant had been too frequently made, it ought not to be made. Upon a division, Mr Adderly's motion was lost by a majority of 8.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—*June 6.* In the House of Lords the Bill was read a second time, to provide that any persons accepting office in the governing bodies of these schools, should do so, subject to future legislation. The Earl of Derby concurred with the Bishop of London, in thinking that French, and German, and Modern History, might be superadded to the course in public schools; but the recommendations of the Commissioners, if carried to their full extent, would lead to a smattering and superficial acquaintance with a great number of subjects, instead of a well grounded know-

ledge in a few; as with buildings, so with education, unless the foundation was well laid, it was impossible to raise on it a solid and enduring superstructure. In the course of the discussion, the Duke of Montrose charged Christ Church with being a college for the amusement of gentlemen of fortune, not a college for study and defended this statement, when the Bill went into committee, by saying, that only four first-class men were from Christ Church from 1856 to 1863, while Balliol had turned out thirty-one.

TESTS ABOLITION BILL.—**JUNE 1.** Mr Trefusis moved that the House go into Committee that day six months. He did not deny the right of Parliament to make the contemplated changes, but did not think it desirable that the governing body of the University should be other than members of the Church of England; and it would not tend to allay doubts if the University of Oxford should cease to be a guide in religious matters. Mr Leatham thought that the Nonconformists, not the Church, ought to be alarmed, for it would plunge their youth into a society saturated with Church notions and sentiments. He supported the Bill, because it asserted the rights of freedom and conscience. Mr Clifford impressed upon the House the heavy loss the University sustained through the numbers driven into dissent under the present system, and the uselessness of checking the growth of opinion. Mr Roebuck objected to tests altogether; they were cobwebs which let the large flies through, and checked the small ones. Sir William Heathcote voted against the Bill, on the ground that tests were imposed, not for the purpose of excluding persons from the University, but for maintaining a tone of religious education within its walls. Lord R. Cecil said the Bill contained two parts: one to change the present test of the "Articles;" the other, to relieve members of the governing body from any test whatever. It was proposed to replace tests which were vague by a test still more vague, for what was meant by "*bona fide* members of the Church of England"? No Scotchman could, under its operation, join the University. All who were favourable to religious education would oppose the Bill. Mr Goschen declared that the education at Oxford ought to be kept in harmony with the spirit and progress of the nation, for they had to educate, not only priests, but the gentlemen and statesmen of England. Mr Bouvier contended, that it was monstrous to exact from young men, on taking their degree, a declaration that the whole contents of the Prayer Book were true, a subscription which was enforced upon no other portion of Her Majesty's subjects. The test was imposed to secure uniformity of worship, and had failed. Oxford itself was torn by religious divisions. He claimed liberty for laymen believing that free discussion promoted truth. Mr Dodson, in reply, denied that it was the object of the Bill to sever the Church from the University, but simply to

remove a test which weighed heavily upon the members of that body, and irritated those beyond her pale. By a majority of 10, in a House of 462 members, the order of the day for going into Committee was carried, and the Chairman immediately after reported progress.

SCOTTISH EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION: SUSPENSION OF THE REVISED CODE.—In the House of Commons on June 10th, Mr H. Bruce, in reply to Mr Dunlop, stated that the Government had determined upon issuing a Commission to inquire into education in Scotland, and in particular to consider if it was not possible to erect a national system of education in Scotland, on the foundation of the old parochial system, and had resolved to suspend the Revised Code in Scotland until the inquiry had been completed, provided, however, that it was completed within twelve months. In connection with this announcement, it has been announced that the Committee of Council on Education are to continue payments to teachers and pupil teachers as formerly under the Old Code, till the end of June 1865; but that the examination of the schools is to be conducted according to the forms and standards of the Revised Code, which provide for the individual examination of the children in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

EDUCATION IN IRELAND.—On June 14, Sir H. Cairns moved "That in the opinion of this House, the rules sanctioned by the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland on 21st November 1863, are, as far as regards their operation in the aid afforded to convent and monastic schools, at variance with the principle of the system of national education." The motion was supported by Mr Peel Dawson and Mr Whiteside, and opposed by the Attorney-General for Ireland. The debate was adjourned till the 23d inst., when the motion was rejected.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—*The Commemoration.*—On June 6, the *encænna*, or commemoration of founders and benefactors to the university, was held in the Sheldonian Theatre. The organ having struck up "God save the Queen," the procession of authorities, headed by the Vice-Chancellor, and accompanied by his grace the Duke of Hamilton and Viscount Newry, attired in rich academical full dress, entered at the large door of the theatre, and, amidst much cheering, the Vice-Chancellor opened Convocation, and submitted, in Latin, the names of the noble and illustrious personages on whom the university proposed to confer honorary degrees. The Vice-Chancellor having submitted the names, Dr Travers Twiss, in appropriate Latin addresses, presented them, amidst much cheering, in the following order:—The Right Hon. and Most Rev. Marcus Gervais Beresford, D.D., Lord Archbishop of Armagh, Primate of All Ireland, Pre-

late of the Order of St Patrick. The Right Hon. the Earl of Bandon, M.A., Oriel College; the Right Hon. Lord Overstone, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge; M. Amédée Thierry, Member of the Imperial Senate, and of the Institute; Sir Rowland Hill, K.C.B.; Arthur Helps, Esq., M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, Clerk of the Council; Arthur Cayley, Esq., M.A., F.R.S., F.R.A.S., Sadlerian Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cambridge. The reception of Sir Rowland Hill was of a more enthusiastic character than usual, and loud and prolonged cheering greeted the great public benefactor, as he took his seat on the left side of the Vice-Chancellor.

CAMBRIDGE.—*Visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales.*—The great event of the month has been the royal visit. Their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales were received with enthusiasm beyond description. At the ceremony of conferring the degree of Doctor of Laws on His Royal Highness, the Public Orator led him before the Chancellor, and introduced him in a short Latin speech, to which his Grace replied to the effect that, by the authority vested in him, he admitted the Prince to the degree of Doctor of Laws, in the name of the Holy Trinity. The Duke of Cambridge having taken his degree in the same manner, the Public Orator delivered a long address in Latin, which contained many points of general interest, and which appealed at each of those points to popular feeling. In particular, the allusions to the Princess of Wales were received with great favour and approval. The Chancellor afterwards admitted to their degrees as Doctors of Laws, Earl Spencer, Lord Alfred Hervey, Lord Harris, and General Knollys. He then presented three prize medals, after which prize poems were recited in English, Latin, and Greek. The proceedings having closed, the Prince and Princess, with the Duke of Cambridge, left the hall, and were conveyed to the house of the Vice-Chancellor.

EDINBURGH.—The first general meeting of the Association for the Better Endowment of the University of Edinburgh, was held on June 18,—the Lord Provost in the chair. Dr John Muir (the honorary secretary) read the report of the acting committee appointed at the preliminary meeting on March 28. (See Part II. May, p. 76.) The committee also submitted the articles and regulations defining the constitution, objects, and mode of operation of the Association. These regulations declare the first object of the Association to be the institution of such a number of scholarships or fellowships as may afford a sufficient stimulus to the higher learning in Scotland, which is at present so inadequately encouraged. There can be no doubt, the acting committee conceive, that of all the objects proposed by the Association, this is the most pressing, and at the same time the most likely to command a large amount of public support. To

this object, they suggest, all others (e.g., the endowment of the existing chairs and the foundation of new professorships) should in the meantime be postponed. The adoption of the report was moved by Lord Neaves, and seconded by Dean Ramsay. Lord Ardmillan, seconded by the Rev. W. Smith, moved the adoption of the draft statement of the constitution of the Association. Both motions were unanimously agreed to. Mr Campbell Swinton moved the election of the office-bearers, as follow:—President—Lord Brougham; Vice-Presidents—the Marquis of Lothian, Lord Belhaven, the Lord Provost, the Lord Advocate, the Lord Justice-Clerk, and W. Stirling, Esq., of Keir; Honorary Secretary—Dr John Muir; Secretary—Mr Christison. A large general committee was also appointed, who have appointed fourteen of their number as the Acting committee.

GLASGOW.—In the event of the City of Glasgow Union Railway Bill passing into an Act, the grounds of the present college will be transferred to the railway company, and a new college will be erected in the west end of the city. The lands of Gilmorehill and West Bank will be purchased for this purpose for £85,000.

ST ANDREWS.—The Senatus Academicus of this University have announced "to the directors and schoolmasters of the several burgh and other schools within the counties allotted to the University in the Parochial Schoolmasters' Act of 1861," that it is their intention to hold local examinations for the scholars of these schools in June 1865, and to grant certificates of proficiency. The programme of examination has not yet been published.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND EDUCATION SCHEME.—The report on this scheme was presented to the General Assembly by Dr Cook. It stated that the number of General Assembly schools (which are distinct from the parochial schools) was 201, of which 80 are female schools. The total attendance was 19,308 scholars. The direct payments were £3800, or 8s. 2d. per scholar. The number of normal students in Edinburgh was 288 (107 male, 181 female), in Glasgow 260 (144 male, 116 female). The fund had increased from £8685, 4s. 6d. in 1863, to £4469, 2s. 5d. in 1864. In consequence of the recent regulations of the Committee of Council, an additional sum of £1500 or £2000 per annum would be required to maintain the normal schools in a state of efficiency. In order to consider how this could be accomplished, a special committee was appointed to confer with the education committee during the sitting of the Assembly. At a subsequent meeting of the Assembly this committee reported that it appeared to them impossible to raise

this sum from year to year, and recommended that, unless some change could be effected in the mode of administering the grant, the education committee should be authorised to close one or both of the normal schools. They further suggested that a permanent sub-committee of the Privy Council should be appointed to administer the grant in Scotland. The report was unanimously adopted.

FREE CHURCH EDUCATION SCHEME.—At the annual meeting of the General Assembly in May, Mr Nixon presented the Report on the Education Scheme. The Report stated that there were 589 schools under the charge of the committee, with 610 teachers and 61,019 scholars. The congregational contributions amounted last year to £7442, 6s. 9d., and this year to £7587, 9s. 10d., being an increase this year at 31st March of £145, 3s. 1d. The other sums received this year amounted to £8199, 10s. 9d. Last year they amounted to £8832, 19s. 2d., being a decrease this year of £633, 9s. The total receipts this year were £15,787, 0s. 7d., against £16,275, 6s. 6d. last year, shewing a net decrease of £488, 5s. 11d. The number of normal students in Edinburgh was 150 (79 male, 71 female): in Glasgow, 140 (73 male, 67 female). The scheme is still in a backward state. It has been necessary to make some changes in the arrangements of the two Normal Schools at Edinburgh and Glasgow, in order to adapt them to the provisions of the Revised Code. In presenting the Report, Mr Nixon forcibly urged the claims of the scheme. With reference to the Revised Code, he said that though there were many evils in it, still, he believed, there were strong grounds for preferring it to the old Code, which helped those who could help themselves, and left the destitute parts of the country in a great measure neglected. He was glad, too, to observe that the Roman Catholics were strongly opposed to the Revised Code. Under it the teacher's allowance was regulated by the results he had turned out, and the Roman Catholics, the results of whose teaching had been mere mummery and falsehoods, would either be compelled to teach something, or go without Government support. That was to him one strong reason for supporting the Code as it was. At the same meeting the Committee on National Education was discharged.

MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION.—In the House of Lords on May 27, Lord Granville stated, in reply to Lord Brougham, that Government was doubtful how far Parliament would sanction the expenditure of public money in aid of middle-class education, and that they were inclined to leave the matter to county associations.

On Saturday June 18. a deputation from the Council of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, consisting of Lord Brougham (president), Earl Fortescue, the Bishop of London, Lord Lyttleton, Hon. Arthur Kinnaid, M.P., Sir John G. Shaw Lefevre, K.C.B., Mr George W. Hast-

ings (general secretary), Rev. F. D. Maurice, &c. &c., waited upon Lord Palmerston, at Cambridge House, to represent the expediency of issuing a Royal Commission to inquire into the grammar and other endowed schools in the United Kingdom not yet reported upon, and generally into the state of education in the middle-classes. Lord Brougham, in introducing the deputation, explained the objects which they contemplated, and expressed his belief that such an inquiry was greatly needed. Mr G. W. Hastings read a memorial which set forth the opinions of Sir John Pakington, the Right Hon. Wm. Cowper, Right Hon. C. B. Adderley, Sir John Shaw Lefevre, and Mr Nassau Senior on the subject, by the last named of whom the Commission had been first proposed. Lord Fortescue, the Bishop of London, Lord Lyttleton, Mr Edwin Chadwick, C.B., and Mr James Heywood, F.R.S., having spoken in support of the memorial, Lord Palmerston in reply admitted that the subject was a very important one, and said he would give it his best consideration.

NATIONAL EDUCATION IN IRELAND.—From the Thirtieth Annual Report (for 1863) of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, we learn that the number of schools in operation in 1862 was 6010; in 1863, 6168; the average daily attendance for 1862 was 284,912; for 1863, 296,986; the average number of children on the rolls was, in 1862, 538,570; in 1863, 544,492; the total number of children at any time on the rolls was, in 1862, 812,527; in 1863, 840,569. Of this last number, 54,248 belonged to the Established Church; 687,076 to the Roman Catholic; 93,481 to the Presbyterian; and 5184 to other persuasions. Protestants of all denominations, 153,498, or 18·26 per cent.; Roman Catholics, as above, 81·74 per cent. The total expenditure in salaries, premiums, &c., in 1863, was £236,330, 15s. 2d.

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

Rev. Charles William King: to be Inspector of Schools.

Mr Michael Harden: to be Assistant-Inspector of Schools.

Mr Robert Calder: to be Assistant-Inspector of Schools.

Mr W. Williams, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge: to be Mathematical Master in the Edinburgh Academy.

Mr E. W. Watts, B.A., Lincoln College, Oxford: to be Second Master of St Bees Grammar School.

Rev. F. Tearle, M.A.: to be Head Master of the Leicester Collegiate School.

Rev. H. Ferrier, M.A., Jesus College, Oxford: to be Assistant Classical Master in the Bristol Grammar School.

Richard Bethell, B. Sc., M.A., Ph. D.: to be Principal of the New Orphan College, Halifax,

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—Among the pupils, fully 6000 in number, of the lycées and colleges of Paris and Versailles, there has been customary an annual competition for three great Emperor's prizes, as they are called, the winners of which, besides hearing their names proclaimed at the festival of distribution, the grandest in the academic year of the Parisians, are exempted from conscription, and admitted without fee to all Government Schools. A like privilege has just been granted to the pupils, nearly ten times as numerous, of the provincial lycées and colleges. The pupils of each academic district are first to compete among themselves in order to ascertain the presumptive prizemen—*lauréats*—in each; the *lauréats* of all the provincial academic districts will then compete for three prizes, equal in every respect to those competed for in the metropolitan district.

So great a value was set on the Emperor's prizes, given till now only in the metropolitan district, that the provincial lycées and colleges very generally lost such of their pupils as had any chance of succeeding in the competition for them; and the present extension of the privilege aims expressly at "reviving provincial life, and rekindling centres of light, more than one of which burned brightly in the past."

M. Renan, interdicted about two years ago from discharging his functions, though allowed still to draw his salary, as professor of Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syriac in the College of France, has been appointed to an office in the manuscript department of the Imperial Library. The professorship held by M. Renan is suspended meanwhile; and the funds which supported it have been transferred to the newly-established chair of grammar and comparative philology. An extract is subjoined from the ministerial report, on which the Emperor's decree regarding the author of the "Life of Jesus" is founded:—

"For more than two years this chair has not been occupied for reasons of public order, which still remain in full force. This provisional state of things cannot last any longer.

"It is inconsistent with the interests of the public service, with the right administration of the public funds, and not less with the dignity of the distinguished scholar, who is forced into a position so anomalous, that the salary should be drawn while the duties are not fulfilled.

"Not being able to restore M. Renan to the chair in which he appeared but once, I consider it best frankly to terminate this anomalous state of things, and to nominate M. Renan to another office.

"M. Renan entered the College of France after serving in the Imperial Library, from which he brought with him the title of *Honorary Librarian*. I pray your Majesty to be pleased to restore him to

the Imperial Library by appointing him *conservateur sous-directeur adjoint* in the manuscript department, where his special learning will enable him to do real service to the public."

An old teacher has petitioned the French Senate to take measures for enabling all Frenchmen to speak the same language with the same accent. His own proposal for this end is that the primary Normal Schools of the south of France and of Alsace be removed to the towns most famous for purity of pronunciation and correctness of expression. On this petition being reported, the Senate passed to the order of the day.

The same fate befell a petition in which a Paris physician begged the Senate to consider whether primary instruction might not be made to approach universality by enacting: (1.) That every conscript who can read shall be bound to serve for only five years, whilst those who can't read shall be bound to serve for seven years. (2.) That no one may be an elector unless he can write the name of the candidate for whom he wishes to vote. (3.) That no child may be apprenticed without producing to his master a certificate of his ability to read, write, and cypher; or at least of his having attended school, and of his being still at it.

The Educational Society of Lyons will this year award a gold medal, value £18, for the best essay on "The serious evils arising from want of respect on the part of children and young people to their parents; the causes of this want of respect, and the remedies for it." The essays, which may be written in French, or in a foreign language, must be sent free to the Secretary, Rue Juiverie, 4, by the 1st of November next. They are to be headed by a motto, and accompanied by a sealed envelope containing the same motto, together with the author's name and address. The manuscripts will not be returned. The Society reserves the right of printing in its transactions the prize essay or essays, without, however, depriving the authors of their copyright.

SWITZERLAND.—According to the report of Dr Guillaume, out of 731 children attending the schools of Neuchâtel town, 28 exhibit a slight curvature of the spine, which he ascribes to the pupils being seated at desks too high or too low for them. The same physician avers the existence of what he calls *goutte scolaire*—school Derbyshire neck—in 414 of these pupils. He ascribes this deformity to that slouching posture, with the head thrown back, into which pupils, sitting on forms without backs, naturally fall.

SPAIN.—The clergy have just been defeated in a

crusade of petitions against the participation of laymen in the work of public instruction. No layman may teach in Spain unless he possess a certificate of competency won by examinations; but the prayer of

the clerical petitions was that ecclesiastical persons alone should be allowed to teach. The students of the universities of Barcelona and Lerida were particularly energetic in resisting this clerical movement.



Proceedings of Societies.

Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.—At the May meeting of this society, Dr W. Hodgson delivered an able and elaborate lecture on the

PUBLIC SCHOOLS' REPORT.

After quoting largely from the evidence, the lecturer said that it suggested several reflections, of which he ventured to present a few in brief;—

1st. Seeing that, in the main, classics and mathematics, and especially classics, are taught in these schools to the grievous neglect, partial or total, of all other subjects, which are important either from their practical utility, or from their educational influence, it might have been some consolation, if not some compensation, to find that classics at least were well taught and commonly learned. But, no! For the sake of classics all other subjects are more or less neglected; yet even these do not seem to profit by the monopoly so largely assigned and so vigilantly guarded. This discovery is most lamentable, yet most instructive. Just as, in economics, a "protected" manufacture is always sickly,—so, in education, monopoly is fatal to the subject it would encourage. It is only just to add, that it is not to the public schools only, though mainly, that this stricture applies.

2d. In the light of such disclosures as these, we can better understand the assault lately made on the education of the poor, so far as it depends on state agency, and the too successful attempt to restrict it virtually within limits not long ago believed to be too narrow for even the poorest of the poor. Very revolutionary indeed must have been the continuance of a scheme of primary instruction which should make the children of the humbler classes superior in real intelligence and available acquirement to those of the richer and higher classes. "Payment according to results"—a cry so mischievously potent to curtail the instruction of the former—may, with far greater reason, be commended to the attention of those who conduct the instruction of the latter.

3d. It is sadly striking that too commonly the school instruction of the rich seems to be expected

to begin at the very age at which that of the poor is expected to end, or at even a later age. Complaints have long been rife of the difficulty of retaining poor children at school beyond the age of 10, 11, or, at furthest, 12. Yet it seems that 12, and even 13, is the age virtually often assigned for the commencement of the actual teaching of the children of the rich. The very years in which, for the former, *all* must be done, are by the latter passed with *nothing* done. Universities condemned to mere school work, throw the blame on the schools, especially the public schools. These schools pass on the charge to the preparatory schools; and by these again it is shifted to the parents, who, having been themselves brought up in the old school and college course, tread blindly in the routine of custom. The vicious circle is thus complete, and each party, if even it desire a change, waits for the others to set it on foot. The institution, by the great public schools, of a standard of preliminary qualification, and a vigorous adherence to it, may abate this crying evil; but its removal can be effected only by a thorough remodelling of the course of private instruction. So long as children are left in ignorance of those studies most congenial to their age, and forced to acquire what is unsuitable to their mental condition, so long must the work of early teaching be irksome in its operation and barren in its result.

4th. These disclosures of the real results of public-school teaching lead me to view with some surprise a recent jeremiad by a gentleman of high educational name, on the incompetency and untrustworthiness of private schools, with alight, if any, exception. If there are any private schools the results of whose teaching is as deplorably unsatisfactory as those now proved to attend public school teaching, it is indeed time that they should be "improved off the face of the earth"; and probably this consummation would long ago have been attained, had the public schools, the great educational exemplars of the nation, not neglected their duty, and wasted their mighty power. The better and, I believe, the larger class of private school teachers will assuredly welcome as an auxiliary, not dread

as an opposing force, any improvements in the great public schools. Their hands would thus be strengthened, and their aspirations raised. Though their labours may be more obscure than those of public school masters, they are not less zealous; to them also are the names of Arnold, Kennedy, and Temple treasured watchwords, rich in encouragement and guidance. But even if names like these were less exceptional than they are, they would but strengthen the case against a system which, in spite of these, has been so signally found wanting.

5th. It must not be forgotten, that the results, whether for good or for evil, of which we have seen in part the evidence, concern almost exclusively those of the pupils who go up to the Universities. Of even these, say the Commissioners, "Those from the highest forms of these schools, who are on the whole well taught classical scholars, notoriously form a small proportion of the boys who receive a public school education. The great mass of such boys expose themselves to no tests which they can possibly avoid" (Vol. i. p. 28). But, as we have already seen, the Commissioners declare that only about one-third of the pupils of the public schools, "taking them altogether," go into the Universities. "Not one of these nine schools sends as many as half of its boys to the Universities; and in the case of most of them, the proportion is much less than one-half" (Vol. i. p. 27).^{*} If such is the mental condition of the one-third who have had before them what ought to be the stimulus of further training at the University, what is likely to be the mental condition of the remaining two-thirds who, on their leaving school, enter at once on the business of life, or on some course of professional training, for which the teaching at the public schools is still less likely to have formed a fitting preparation? The Commissioners regret that the test, which they proposed to apply, of "a direct and simple examination of a certain proportion of the boys," was "declined by the schools." In the absence of such or any equivalent test, we are left to an inference of probability. Few perhaps will maintain that, leaving out of view the prize-winners at Oxford and Cambridge, it is only the stupid and ignorant who continue their training at the Universities, or even that they are inferior to the majority who do not enter at the Universities. If the selected *sample* fail, what shall we say of the *sack*?

6th. The Commissioners, in their general conclusion, after saying of the *course of study*, "which appears to us sound and valuable in its main elements, but wanting in breadth and flexibility,—defects which, in our judgment, destroy in many cases, and impair in all, its value as an education of the mind; and which are made more prominent at

the present time by the extension of knowledge in various directions, and by the multiplied requirements of modern life;"—and of the *organisation and teaching*, regarded not as to its range, but as to its force and efficacy,—“We have been unable to resist the conclusion, that these schools, in very different degrees, are too indulgent to idleness, or struggle ineffectually with it; and that they consequently send out a large proportion of men of idle habits, and empty and uncultivated minds,”—go on to say, “Of their discipline and moral training we have been able to speak in terms of high praise” (Vol. i. p. 65).

This estimate, which it would be presumptuous in me formally to contradict, I think it would be not less credulous to accept. When I remember the applause which almost everywhere greeted, some years ago, the melancholy revelations of “Tom Brown,” I am very distrustful of the general notion of the morality, whether possible or desirable, among school-boys. In the absence of more direct means of judging, I note the indications casually given in the Commissioners’ Report of the moral state of Eton, less casually of that of Westminster. I fix my eye on the idleness and mental vacuity admitted to be too common, and I rest in the conviction that idleness is the fruitful parent of vice, and that the devil dances not more surely in the empty *pocket* than in the empty *head*. It is not wonderful that in a country where successive generations of the leaders of opinion have been subject to the public school regime, such as it used to be, the general standard of morals by which youth are tried should be as low as is undoubtedly the general estimate of what is possible to be learned in school, still more of the influence of judicious school-training on character and conduct in after life. The “Tom Brown” code of school ethics often reminds me of the Irish father who said that of all his sons he liked his youngest best, “because,” said he, “he never kicks me when I’m down.” It is scarcely more exacting, or more difficult to please.

THE MARYLEBONE LITERARY INSTITUTE.—On Saturday, June 11., Dr W. B. Hodgson delivered a lecture, to a numerous attended meeting of this society, on

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

The lecture arose out of a discussion that took place in April, upon the proposed admission of girls to the local examinations, in connection with Oxford and Cambridge Universities. Dr Hodgson said that the rules of the discussion prevented him from giving a full reply to the reasons urged at the time, against the admission of girls to these examinations; but thinking the subject one of pressing importance, he had undertaken that lecture. One assertion had been made at the discussion in April, that the mind of woman differs *toto cælo* from that of man, and there-

^{*} At Christmas 1861, the nine schools contained 2686 boys between 8 and 19 years of age, the average being about 15. (Vol. i. p. 11.)

fore that examinations suitable for young men are not so for young women. It is only necessary to reply to such an assertion, for we cannot dignify it as an argument, said the lecturer, "that the mind of the gentleman who made it differs *toto cælo* from mine."

It is not necessary for our purpose to maintain that the mind of woman is equal to the mind of man, that is, of particular men, any more than it would be to maintain that their physical power is equal. But do any of these differences prove that women ought not to learn what men learn? True, we have had no women Shakespeares, Dantes, Miltons, Michael Angeloes; but if women fail in reaching these mental heights, how ought men to be treated, so few of whom have reached so high?

The education of woman needs not to be mixed up with questions of political rights, which have been man's by long prescription; nor with professional training. These matters may be investigated on their merits; but the broad question is, Should women have equal access with men to every means that build up character? This remains, whether she receive special bent for professions or knack for handicraft. Man is trained because he is a man; not because he is to be a barrister. So also with woman; she demands culture, because she possesses a mind in common with man.

Another fallacy urged against the education of women is, that their home duties preclude them from gaining knowledge. Man, however, has corresponding duties, professional callings, municipal and national duties. Between these lies the field, common to men and women, for literary and scientific culture. Women really have more, not less, time than men. Few women enter upon serious domestic duties for a few years after leaving school; an invaluable time for mental culture. Women are free from the long technical work of preparation men have to go through. Many feel the emptiness of a round of operas, balls, concerts, flower shows, and dinner parties, and pine for a serious object and occupation. Reason, therefore, in every way, claims for women, as much at least as for men, unrestricted mental culture.

This brings us to consider the proportionate importance of the different branches of knowledge. We have to take account of the fitness of women for the studies, and the fitness of the studies for women; or, in other words, of the persons to be taught, and of the things to be learnt; we have to observe what there is in woman's nature unfitting her for particular studies, what in particular studies unfitting for her to learn. Social influences have made woman such as she has become; her position has been modified from time to time, and progress towards equality with man in many respects is perceptible. No one has the right to say, "Thus far has she come, and shall come no further;" a much more rational thing to do, is to give a proper direction to her future progress.

The female sex is described as more impulsive, less cautious, more imaginative, less logical, than the male sex; and these are urged as the precise respects in which mental nutriment for women is rendered unavailable. A girl is said to be a child who does what she is told to do; a boy one who does the opposite. Now, leaving the point whether the differences amongst men are not greater than between men and women; whether many women are not more cautious and less impulsive than men; let us ask for the reason why the impulsive should not be restrained by knowledge; why the less cautious should not be made wiser; why such a faculty as the imagination, which is the power of bringing the past and the future into the present, the distant into the near, should not be cultivated? Because a girl is docile, is that a reason why she should not be taught? We are told that it is the nature of girls to persevere against all argument and begin again. It is no use reasoning with them, for though they see clearly all you say, they won't see the necessity of your argument concluding anything. They would take your word for anything, but your reasoning goes for nothing. Why is this? Is there any other reason than that their minds are not trained logically, and that while valuable things have been kept from them, their training has been replete with trifles? If it be true that woman's mind is weak, the more, not the less, need of higher instruction to strengthen it; if deficient, the more, not the less, need of instruction to compensate for deficiencies; not of course purely professional instruction, but of that which promotes the harmonious growth of all the powers of the mind.

Dr Hodgson dwelt upon the necessity of instruction, such as went to form character, and gave examples from his personal experience in teaching, of the value of a knowledge of physiology, as it related to the laws of health, and of the simple but important laws of economic science, both of which subjects were admirable, as mental discipline, in forming the character of the girls who must become the wives and mothers of the next generation. In answer to a remark that had been made to him upon the character of servants, that "dress and education were their bane," he said that not education but the want of education was really their bane—sometimes the bane of mistresses too. He drew a contrast between the flippant, self-complacency of the strong-minded women, and John Stuart Mill's well-known epitaph upon his wife, who died at Avignon, the description not less true than beautiful, of a woman, perfect in all the qualities that adorn woman's nature, while eminent also for wisdom and knowledge.

The proceeds of the lecture were devoted to the fund for promoting the admission of girls to the local examinations conducted by the Universities.

FIFTH OF CLYDE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.—This association, which was formed about a year ago, embraces a large district, having members already

from Bishopton to Rothesay and Largs. Their meetings are held monthly during the winter months, in Greenock, and in the summer, in the country. The second of the summer meetings was held at Kilmacollm, on the last Saturday of May, when an able and interesting paper was read by Mr M'Donald, the parish teacher there, on "The methods adopted for imparting religious instruction."

SCHOOLMASTERS' SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.—This society, which has been in existence five years, closed another session on Thursday, 9th June, with an interrogative lecture on "Education," from Mr Wm. Ellis, who had kindly undertaken the Modersatorship of the class, weekly, since last autumn. Our abstract of the lecture, though in type, must be postponed.

The Month.

SCOTLAND.—As we were enabled to announce last month (though some of our friends thought the news too good to be true, and were hardly polite in their manner of telling us so), the Government has issued a Royal Commission to inquire into education in Scotland, and in the mean time the Revised Code has been suspended in that country for one year. One of the main designs of the Commission is to ascertain whether it is possible to erect a national system on the basis of the old parochial school system,—whether it is possible to do what the Lord Advocate has been trying to do for the last ten years or more, but has always failed in doing. The Commission is to be allowed one year to inquire into, and deliberate upon, this question; and if by that time they have not returned a favourable report, then the Privy Council system will be re-inflicted, with all the cruel certainty of an execution after a hopeful reprieve, upon the schoolmasters of Scotland.

We have, in the mean time, to congratulate them on the breathing space which they have obtained; and we earnestly hope that they will use it aright in getting *their* view of the question fairly and fully placed before the country and the Government. We have also to congratulate Mr Bruce on his thus happily inaugurating his career at the Education office by an act of clear though tardy justice. It has always appeared to us extremely unfair that the measure of England should have been so unceremoniously applied to Scotland. As Mr Dunlop expressed it, the Revised Code "was adopted after an inquiry relating to England, without any reference whatever to Scotland; and in many respects it is at variance with the habits of the people of that country, and the education provided for them." Though somewhat late in the day, the claim of Scotland to a separate inquiry is now conceded, and the terms in which Mr Bruce announced the concession are very encouraging. They hold out the hope that, even if

the Commission should fail in its specific object of erecting a national system, the Revised Code as it stands will not be re-imposed. "Her Majesty's Government," he said, "consider it desirable that the present system of public aid in connection with education should be altered." They were evidently prepared, therefore, to make some modifications in the Code, adapting it to the peculiar circumstances of Scotland. But "they do not think it desirable that any change should take place in the course of the next twelve months in *the system at present in operation*, when it is possible that a further change may be introduced at the end of that period."

Another point of primary importance was raised by Mr Dunlop in putting the question which elicited this gratifying statement. The inquiry is not to have reference merely "to the narrow question of denominational or sectarian systems, but to the subject of education at large." It cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the subject is really an educational, and not merely an ecclesiastical, one. In the past this has been the great difficulty,—the great source of failure. Under cover of its religious aspects, the question has been viewed exclusively in its ecclesiastical bearings. The discussions have been carried on by members of the different churches, as members of these churches, while the interests of education, and specially the interests of the teachers, have been ignored or openly trampled upon. It has been virtually declared that unless the rights of this church are maintained, and the claims of that church are conceded, and the whims of the other church are gratified, a settlement of the question is hopeless. In the sectarian strife, education itself is violated and forgotten; and the claims of the teachers are left wholly out of the account. "While the givers dispute on the *what* and the *how* to give, a nation of children are perishing" for lack of knowledge. Surely the

time has now come when the teachers of Scotland may come forward as a united body, and insist that they have a first claim to be heard and considered.

Recent discussions in church courts do not give much promise of ecclesiastical harmony on this occasion. So far is the Free Church from having any merit in bringing about the present crisis, that the convener of their education scheme, openly avowing that he viewed the question purely as an ecclesiastical one, declared that he preferred the Revised Code to the old one, alleging as the main ground of his preference that the Revised Code was obnoxious to the Roman Catholics, and therefore must be good! The Church of Scotland, on the other hand, declared against the Revised Code; but that chiefly because it was likely, in conjunction with more recent minutes, to compel them to close one or both of their Normal Schools. The suspension of the Code cannot be altogether gratifying to them; for it leaves the Normal School Minute in full force, and thus by anticipation destroys their hope of securing better terms for these institutions.

It is at the same time gratifying to know that we owe the circumstances which render so desirable a change possible, mainly to the efforts of the parochial schoolmasters, aided by the exertions of their brethren of the Free Church. As it has been a schoolmasters' question so far, let it be a schoolmasters' question throughout. Let them not loose the hold they have got upon the government, but rather pursue their advantage, and use every effort to carry out to a successful issue the movement they have so happily and hopefully inaugurated.

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.—The narrow majority of 8 by which Mr Adderley's renewed attack upon the Endowment Minute was last month defeated, did not by any means place it beyond the reach of further assailment, or imply the final settlement of the question. This was demonstrated to the House when, on a subsequent day, Sir John Pakington threatened to reopen the discussion by suggesting "that in making grants to schools in possession of endowments, regard should be had to the need of assistance in each case, and the requisite aid ought to be given to such schools, whether they are rural or in towns." It thus appears that the Endowment Minute bids fair to split upon the same rock on which the Capitation Grant foundered, in the difficult distinction between town and rural schools. The expedient of considering the case of each school separately appears

to be the fairest solution of the difficulty. But it would be an anomaly in the rigid system of the Privy Council, and would sadly perplex and burden the Education Office. The very suggestion of this expedient, however, indicates the extreme difficulty of the question, and seems to imply an admission, which we are not prepared to gainsay, that much may reasonably be urged on both sides of it.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—Earl Stanhope introduced the subject of the Public Schools Report in the House of Lords on the 27th of May. The introduction of a Bill by Lord Clarendon, providing that, after the passing of the Act, all persons appointed to any office in the governing body of these schools shall hold that office "subject to such provisions as may hereafter be enacted respecting the same," has afforded various opportunities during the month for the discussion of questions raised by the report. In connection both with these debates in Parliament, and with the controversy that has been going on beyond it, two things are noticeable: first, that the discussion has been adroitly diverted from the great question regarding the actual state of these schools, to the consideration of subsidiary points of detail relating to the subjects of instruction, such as the comparative merits and value of Greek versification and of natural science; second, that when their lamentable deficiencies have been admitted, the entire blame has been thrown upon the preparatory training at home and in the private schools. It is too evident that the intent of both these devices is to excuse as far as possible the public schools themselves, and to relieve them from the odium which the severe strictures of the Commissioners have brought upon them. No doubt the detailed suggestions of the Commissioners are of the utmost importance; but they should be discussed in connection with the evils which the Commissioners designed them to remove, and not on their own abstract merits merely. Of the five great general conclusions of the report, there are two which are being very skillfully confounded, and that with the evident design of "white-washing" the public schools. The former of these refers to "their course of study," as to its range, which the Commissioners declare to be "wanting in breadth and flexibility." The latter refers to "their organisation and teaching" regarded "as to its force and efficacy." Now it is to the former of these that the discussion of the question has been almost invariably narrowed. In considering the question *what* they profess to teach, and *what* they should teach, the more im-

portant question of *how* they teach, and how their teaching is to be improved, has been adroitly pushed aside. We are strongly impressed with the belief that by this expedient there is great danger of the report being vitiated, or, in plain language, "burked." It cannot, therefore, be unnecessary to recall attention to the deliverance of the Commissioners on the second and vitally important point, which is in these words: "*that these schools, in very different degrees, are too indulgent to idleness, or struggle ineffectually with it; and that they consequently send out a large proportion of men of idle habits and empty and uncultivated minds.*"

We need hardly say that the question of Greek versification *versus* the modern languages and natural science, has only an indirect and very remote bearing on this point. Then as to blaming the private schools, we are very far from excusing them; but it must surely occur to every impartial mind that the public schools must be very useless affairs if they cannot, between the ages of ten and eighteen, make up whatever deficiencies existed before the earlier of these years. Moreover the Commissioners have suggested an infallible means of correcting the inefficiency of the preliminary instruction, by proposing the institution of a sufficient entrance examination. But granting that the habits of idleness so severely commented upon were contracted to some extent before the public schools were entered, how does that excuse them for being "too indulgent to idleness" within themselves? Why do they "struggle ineffectually with it"? And what have they been doing during these eight years, that, in spite of the ability and learning of their masters, they still send out "a large proportion of men of idle habits and empty and uncultivated minds"?

These questions still remained to be grappled with; and they must be grappled with honestly and fearlessly before the subject is finally settled. It is implied in the very terms of Lord Clarendon's Bill, which has passed the House of Lords, that more general legislation for the public schools is contemplated in the next session of Parliament.

UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENT.—The Association for the better Endowment of the University of Edinburgh, was formally inaugurated at an influential public meeting on the 13th ultimo. An account of the proceedings will be found on another page.

We are anxious here to record our satisfaction that the Association has resolved that the institution of Scholarships or Fellowships shall be the first object to which it will apply its funds. Fellowships are the great desideratum in the Scottish Universities. Their education does not stand so much in need of machinery as of rewards and encouragements. The higher scholarship in Scotland suffers, not from want either of taste or of aptitude for it, but from want of opportunity to cultivate it. The courses of study are all too strictly professional. Each student attaches himself to one or other of the four faculties, and as soon as he has passed through his prescribed curriculum, he is at once drafted off into his chosen profession, and becomes immersed in its active pursuits. Long before he can attain to a position affording him that "learned leisure" in which his powers at one time fitted him to be an intelligent worker, he has lost in active life both his scholarship and his habit of study. Now it is the design of Fellowships to make, for a time at least, learning itself a profession. Valuable as they are when in prospect, as rewards of merit, and as inducements to exertion, they are still more valuable when in operation, as a means of enabling the University to retain her best graduates in her own service for some years after graduation, instead of allowing their powers and their acquirements to be immediately absorbed in the duties of professional life. We believe that the great cause of the paucity of native scholars of eminence in Scotland lies in the rivalry that exists between the universities and the professions which they foster; a rivalry which is not apparent only because, from the necessities of life, the professions must inevitably triumph. To put the universities on a footing of equality with their rivals, they must be enabled to present some counter-attraction. And Scholarships are the best form which such an attraction can assume. The institution of some half dozen Scholarships in the University of Edinburgh within the last three years, and now the proposal of the Endowment Association to follow in the same track, are hopeful signs for the future of Scottish learning. We have no doubt that the prominence which the Association has wisely given to this object will prove a great means of gaining for it popular favour, and securing its immediate success.



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS, 1863.*

UNQUESTIONABLY the most interesting, and we may be pardoned for adding, the most intelligible, portion of the Educational Blue-book is that part of the appendix which contains the Inspectors' Reports. It is through them that we get the clearest and most direct insight into the actual state and working of our elementary and normal schools. The general report of the Committee is based entirely upon statistical returns; and no one has ever yet propounded an opinion which statistics may not be made to support. No doubt statistics enter into the individual reports also, but in proportion as you widen the area of statistical data, in that proportion do you increase the danger of fallacious generalisations. And as the inspectors' conclusions are drawn from personal contact as well as from figures, while those of the committee are drawn from the latter only, we may be allowed to attach more weight to the inspectors' remarks than to the theories of the office.

This forms the strongest reason too for the Inspectors' reports—if they are to be presented at all—being presented in their integrity. The general report is but hearsay evidence. The inspectors' evidence is immediate. The report of the office is something "about it, and about it." An inspector's report is, or should be, the thing itself. The recent controversy on this subject—concerning which a committee of the House of Commons has just made its report—gives per-

tinence to these remarks. And there can be little doubt that one of the first points which readers of this volume will seek to ascertain will be, how far the current reports have been affected by this agitation. That there has been no tampering with the reports in the office this year might have been taken for granted, even if there had not been internal evidence of the fact. That nearly all the inspectors have written under a wholesome or unwholesome dread of official censure, there can, we think, be as little doubt. To clip the wings before flight is attempted will be admitted to be even a more effectual means of restraint than to bring a bird down after it has transgressed its convenient bounds. Now "clipped wings" seems to be the normal state of the inspectors at present. The exceptions to this state are just numerous enough, and notable enough, to prove the rule; and we probably owe their appearance to the counter-clipping to which the goose-quills of the office have very lately been subjected. There is an evident caution—unless when the safe side is taken—in approaching controverted points. Such points are glanced at,—they can hardly be said to be introduced,—in an apologetic tone. There is a disposition to take "a hopeful view" of everything that is doubtful. The withdrawal of pupil teachers, it is hoped, is the result of a temporary panic; or "there is no reason to regret that a check has been put to the over-supply," or monitors will be "quite as efficient," as well as "less costly," and "more easily procurable." In like manner, though Mr Kennedy very boldly affirms that he finds "beyond the

* Report of the Committee of Council on Education; with Appendix. 1863-4.

possibility of doubt that in a large majority of cases such diminution (viz., in teachers' incomes), is taking place, yet," he adds, "whether this be for good or for evil future years must determine." Mr Moncreiff cannot be too highly praised for venturing to express an opinion adverse to the Endowment Minute; yet even he prefaces it with the mild circumlocution, "here it is hardly possible to refrain from expressing a fear lest" so and so. On the other hand, whenever a view favourable to the policy of the office can be expressed, it is expressed fully and forcibly. "Some such measure as the recent change in your Lordships' minute was absolutely required," says Mr Barry. "The Revised Code will certainly stimulate this improvement more rapidly," says Mr E. P. Arnold. "The Revised Code will do great good in these respects," says Mr Temple. The limitation, however, with which these seemingly broad statements are generally coupled must not be overlooked. These may generally be paraphrased thus: "I am thankful to be able to say so much in favour of the new system, but I must not be understood as commending it out and out." The Roman Catholic inspector, Mr Lynch, is almost the only man who expresses himself more confidently in its favour, but even his confidence only goes the length of an "anticipation:" "upon the two essential points, its effect upon the condition of instruction in the schools, and its financial results, I may venture to express, as far as my own district is concerned, a confident anticipation that it will be found to produce beneficial results." On the other hand, Mr Matthew Arnold is the only man who ventures to urge a plea in favour of the old system. His sensible and discriminating remarks on inspection *versus* examination are one of the rare instances in the volume of independent thinking and writing; and as such, though quite as much on account of their intrinsic value, we shall reserve them for quotation in a future number.

It cannot fail to be noticed as a remarkable fact, that the most thorough-going defence of the Revised Code in its effect upon teachers and upon the supply of pupil teachers, is to be found, not in any of the reports upon elementary schools, but in two of those upon the normal colleges. Messrs Cowie and Cook stand forth as the champions of the new minutes. The former gentleman comments in a sneering manner upon "the lachrymose and peevish tone of the teachers in charge of elementary schools," which "has discouraged many of their young pupil-teachers from seeking the office of schoolmaster." He desiderates a much higher degree of disinterestedness

and self-sacrificing devotion on the part of this class of the community than, we fear, he is entitled to expect, or is likely to get. "Instead of making up their minds," he says, "to meet the charges which State necessity had forced upon your Lordships in a manly spirit, and with a resolve that under all circumstances the great work of Christian education should go on energetically, there has been too much faintheartedness and despondency." So the teachers are to augment themselves in love for what the State withdraws in money! On the same principle, if "State necessity" should cancel the whole grant, young men ought yet to devote themselves "in a manly spirit" to "the great work of Christian education," for nothing but the sheer love of it. It is "lachrymose and peevish" for teachers to complain that their salaries are in jeopardy. Never mind though they starve if "the great work" goes on "energetically." They have no right to be doleful because their incomes are reduced. Let them be thankful that they get anything at all. "Lavish subsidy," Mr Cowie is pleased to remark, "had lasted too long, and when stopped it was found to have enervated its recipients." And is this so very blameworthy? Is this so contrary to human nature that the Rev. B. M. Cowie may assume a lofty moral tone, and lecture our future and present teachers upon the duty of "manly spirit," and sneer at their peevishness and faintheartedness, and despondency? Does this not come with a very bad grace from an inspector, when the cost of inspection is almost the only charge upon the grant which is steadily increasing, when inspectors are almost the only men to whom the Revised Code holds out the promise of a certain gain? If *their* "lavish subsidy" were to be suddenly curtailed, we suspect there would be some indications of "enervated recipients," of "faintheartedness and despondency," even amongst our magnanimous inspectors.

But Mr Cook deserves the title of champion even more than Mr Cowie. Mr Cowie addresses these remarks to "your Lordships," and through them to the public generally. Mr Cook, however, took occasion, in course of his inspection of Church normal schools for schoolmistresses, "to address the students collectively on most of these subjects," and he flatters himself that his observations "produced a strong impression upon the students." Truly Mr Cook is a valuable, an invaluable, functionary. He is entitled at least to double pay; for he is not only an inspector, he is also an emissary. He not only comes up from the schools to tell my Lords what is going on there but he also goes down to the schools to de-

fend the policy of my Lords. Now waiving altogether the question of the legitimacy of this proceeding, and as to whether this is not "irrelevant matter" in a report on normal schools, let us see what Mr Cook's elaborate defence amounts to. The two points he specially discusses (for he embodies an abstract of his lecture in his report), are the remuneration of teachers, and the supply of pupil teachers—two points which are evidently very closely connected. On the former he says:

"There can be no doubt that it will more than ever be the interest of managers to secure the services of the best and most practical teachers; and notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, it is probable, indeed nearly certain, that they will be able to afford a sufficient stipend, not perhaps upon an average far short of that which has hitherto been secured to certificated teachers, and in some cases exceeding it."

Notice first, that Mr Cook's conclusion is only "probable," or at most "nearly certain." Notice secondly, that this probability, or approximate certainty, promises only "a sufficient stipend," leaving wholly *in dubio* the question as to what "a sufficient stipend" will consist of. For, thirdly, as compared with the former rate of remuneration, it is subjected to the refining of a triple modification. It will be "not far short" of it; it will be "perhaps" not far short of it; and it will be perhaps not far short of it "upon an average;" and all this "not, perhaps, upon an average far short," is only, taking Mr Cook's own words for it, "probable, indeed nearly certain!" Oh, Mr Cook! and was this all you had to say to reassure the trembling young schoolmistresses, and "to allay the unreasonable apprehensions which very many students felt concerning their future prospects?" Better, surely, to have left the uneasiness to outgrow itself, than to have "darkened counsel" by these too ingenious fabrications.

Mr Cook's remarks on the supply of pupil teachers are even more glaringly inconclusive. "I do not," he says, "fear a falling off in the supply." And his reason for this conclusion is stated formally in a previous sentence, to this effect:—

"Whenever positive advantages are offered and properly explained to persons who are looking out for an opening in life for their children, and the future prospects of their children are substantially secure and satisfactory, there is little reason to fear but that within a reasonable time large numbers will be found anxious to avail themselves of the benefits."

When Mr Cook thus puts the question on the broad principle of supply and demand, it is rather

damaging to his argument that, in the very same paragraph, he concedes that "there may be great difficulty in getting male apprentices, a difficulty which in the few metropolitan schools I have to inspect is represented as insurmountable." One is tempted to ask, if the principle of supply and demand thus fails in the case of males, why must it necessarily operate in the case of females? And when Mr Cook talks about "positive advantages," and "substantially secure and satisfactory" prospects ("future prospects" is Mr Cook's phrase), he really begs the whole question. The positiveness of the advantages is the whole matter in dispute. It is because the prospects are neither "secure" nor "satisfactory," that the number in search of them is rapidly falling off. And when, on Mr Cook's own shewing, it is little more than "probable" that the remuneration of teachers in the future will be only "not perhaps upon an average far short" of what it has been in the past, we cannot wonder at the "faintheartedness and despondency" which so much distress and incense his colleague and fellow-champion Mr Cowie. No doubt, at the same time, the economic law will work here as elsewhere; but it will work subject to the circumstances of the case. By endangering both the remuneration and the security, their Lordships are virtually lowering their demand. And the question is, whether, when they lower their demand, they will procure *the same kind* of supply? No doubt, if all the certificated teachers in England were to resign to-morrow, their places could be supplied within a month: there are plenty of needy men and women in the country. But would they be so well supplied? Thus, in fact, the whole tendency of the recent minutes, in so far as they render the teachers' incomes more precarious—and this they unquestionably do to a serious extent—is to scare from the profession the better intellects, leaving their place to be supplied by those of an inferior quality.

Passing now from the region of ingenious theory to that of stern fact, let us see what the inspectors of elementary schools and of pupil-teachers themselves say on this vitally important point. Their Lordships distinctly assure us, perhaps drawing their inspiration from Messrs Cook and Cowie, that they "see no reason to think that the system of pupil teachers will fail under the Revised Code, whether they are regarded as junior instructors in elementary schools, or as candidates for admission into normal schools." And this inference is based on the statistical fact, that the number of new apprentices in 1863 (2971) is greater by 209 than the number in 1862. We

may be entitled to look for some explanation of this increase, in the fact that 312 additional schools or departments were inspected in 1863; with the other fact, that there were built in that year 125 new schools, affording accommodation for 27,098 additional children. Now the proportion of pupil teachers to children actually inspected is rather less than 1 to 80. This increase, therefore, in the same ratio, should give us 338 additional pupil teachers. And if we take the actual increase in the number of children inspected (35,315), the increase should have been 441 at least. But the fact is, that however this number of new apprenticeships in 1863 (2971) may be reached, we do not find it in any of the supplementary tables to the report. In Table No. 2 we find that the number of pupil teachers in their first year was, in 1863, 2315; in 1862, it was 2934,—no increase, but a decrease of 619. And the almost uniform tenor of the inspectors' reports leads us to conclude that there must be some mistake here, or that the committee must have had some data before them which are not given to the general public.

Thus Mr E. P. Arnold says :—

"In consequence of the Revised Code, there has already been a diminution in the number of pupil teachers in this district (Cornwall and West Devon), and there is no doubt that this number will be still further diminished in the current year." The decrease is 45.—(P. 21.)

Mr Sharp says :—

"A supply of pupil teachers equal to the old demand is nowhere to be met with."—(P. 144.)

Mr Watkins says :—

"The number of pupil teachers has decreased sensibly, and will in all probability become less hereafter, as in many schools paid monitors will be employed in their place, as being both less costly, and also more easily procurable."—(P. 164.)

Mr Bonner's remarks on this subject refer, not so much to the difficulty of procuring new candidates, as to the more serious difficulty of retaining the old ones :—

"The only active symptom of decline is the unwillingness of pupil teachers to continue their profession. Some have had their indentures cancelled. Several of those who will complete their apprenticeship at Christmas do not intend to seek admission to a normal school, and the number passed for admission does not equal the number of those whose service has expired."

"I have in the schedules of the Lord President's decision on the schools inspected from April to August, the names of 148 pupil teachers (not quite

half the total number apprenticed in my district). Of these

108 continue in service,
26 will leave at Christmas,
3 failed in their examination,
7 have withdrawn,
1 has been dismissed for misconduct,
8 have retired in consequence of ill health.

148 .

25 candidates have passed for admission, so that there will be 188 in service next year, in place of 148 this year.

"I have not been in the habit of making memorandum when I have heard that an apprentice does not intend to continue in his profession after the expiration of his term of service, but that is the usual answer to my inquiry.

"Before this report is forwarded to your Lordships my expectation will have been proved true or false, but I have little doubt that fully half of the twenty-six (of the male pupil teachers two-thirds) will leave the profession at Christmas."—(P. 62.)

Both these difficulties are distinctly stated by Mr Campbell, who further adds a warning which is a sufficient answer to Mr Bonner and others who prefer to congratulate themselves on the satisfactory decline. He says :—

"Formerly the pupil teacher staff was very numerous, but now it is being fast swept away. Candidates for election, especially males, are becoming every day more difficult to be obtained; in my last three collective examinations of pupil teachers the number of boy candidates were five, three, and two, and their place is being supplied by assistant teachers under Art. 91 (Revised Code), or more generally by probationary certificated masters. The pupil teachers who have served their time, both male and female, exhibit a repugnance to enter a normal school, or otherwise pursue the natural course of the profession in which they have spent several of the most important years of their lives; and in however great a degree this state of things may be considered as a relief, in the present generally acknowledged disproportion of *supply to demand* in the matter of teachers, the fact must bring, to those who look a few years forward, a foreboding of reaction which may be too truly realized."—(Pp. 78-74.)

"To the self-same tune and words" goes the testimony of Mr Meyrick :—

"Another tendency should not fail to be noticed because it is a serious thing, whether for good or evil. This is the tendency to return to the monitorial from the pupil teacher system. This does not shew itself as yet so strongly as will soon be the case, because the five years during which pupil teachers appointed under the Old Code were ap-

prenticed are not yet expired. The supply of candidates, especially of male candidates, to take the place of those whose apprenticeship expires, is diminishing."—(P. 94.)

Mr Moncrieff says:—

"On the whole, it seems that pupil teachers are likely to disappear, or be reduced to a very small number, confined probably to a few town schools. There is no evidence as yet that they will be replaced to anything like the full extent by second or assistant masters. The causes are chiefly two, the increased scarcity of candidates, and the still greater scarcity of funds."—(P. 108.) . . . "The reduction of the staff of pupil teachers is proceeding rapidly." (P. 110.)

Mr Robinson says:—

"The staff of teachers is being gradually reduced. The existing pupil teachers are retiring in much greater numbers, or looking forward to other employment at the completion of their apprenticeships. There is a general inclination to substitute monitors for apprentices, or to carry on the school without assistance. Suitable candidates are found to offer themselves in decreasing numbers.

"Without doubt the most prominent feature of the present time is the gradual melting away of the class of pupil teachers created under the provisions of past Minutes of Council."—(P. 180.)

Mr Brodie says:—

"Including the newly admitted candidates, there are probably not less than 460 pupil teachers in this district, a number considerably and even absolutely much less than formerly, notwithstanding the increased number of schools."—(P. 304.)

From several of the reports it also appears that the pupil teacher staff has declined in efficiency as well as in number, and more than one inspector very naturally connects this with the same cause,—the intention to leave the profession. Thus Mr Robinson follows the sentence we have quoted above with the remark:—

"At the same time I cannot mistake that a diminution of energy and interest, exhibited in a lessened care of details and a lightened anxiety for the essential niceties of school management, is very general among teachers themselves as well as pupil teachers."—(P. 181.)

And Mr Alderson says still more explicitly:—

"I am sorry I cannot report as favourably as in previous years of the pupil teachers in my district. Both their written exercises and their practical skill seem to me to shew deterioration. Their demeanour in school has been marked, in many cases, by a languor and want of interest which I am sorry to notice, and have very rarely noticed till now. It is probably to be accounted for by the fact that many

of them have intended to quit the profession of a teacher at the end of their engagement. With regard to the future supply of pupil teachers, I have found comparatively few eligible candidates ready to take the place of those whose time of service has expired."

Yet in the face of this overwhelming evidence to the contrary, offered not by one inspector, but by ten, and drawn from all parts of the country, my Lords boldly affirm, in the report based upon this evidence, "We see no reason to think that the system of pupil teachers will fail under the Revised Code." Dr Cumming, it is true, says that the diminution "is not to be regretted." Mr Cowie attributes it to "the lachrymose and peevish tone" of elementary teachers; and Mr Cook assures their Lordships that nothing has yet occurred "to justify serious apprehension." But what are one inspector's vague and vain promises in comparison with ten inspectors' stern facts? Yet the committee sturdily ignore the facts, and cling in spite of hope to the more congenial promises.

It was felt, at the time of the promulgation of the Revised Code, that the premium which it put exclusively on the elementary subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, would greatly endanger the retention of what are called the higher subjects,—such as grammar, history, and geography,—in the school programme. These fears are now being realized with indubitable force. The subjects in the school time-tables are now divided into "paying" and "non-paying;" and very naturally the former are engrossing the lion's share both of time and attention. On this point, though the Committee's report is silent, the Inspectors' reports afford abundant evidence. Mr Meyrick expresses the unanimous opinion of those who refer to this subject when he says that "the present tendency is to exclude these subjects (the higher subjects) altogether from elementary schools." Several of the inspectors, it is true, making a virtue of necessity, hint that reading, writing, and arithmetic "have ever been the subjects best taught," leaving it to be implied that we are only losing the subjects in which teaching was least efficient. It is questionable, however, whether, if the subjects are of any value in themselves, their complete exclusion is the best means of correcting the ineffective teaching of them. Others, again, inform us that "the more far-seeing and sensible teachers" are by no means excluding them "*from their time-tables*." But, apart from the consideration (supported, too, by very sufficient testimony) that their presence in

the time-tables by no means prevents their absence from the teaching, it may be doubted whether it is fair to leave these higher subjects to the unequal (but by no means uncertain) contest between prospective credit and immediate monetary returns. Certainly this places everything like higher education at the greatest possible disadvantage. And the important fact remains, that it has already received a severe blow, that the higher subjects, like the pupil teachers, are being rapidly swept away, and another of the worst forebodings of the opponents of the Revised Code is receiving a melancholy realization.

It is certainly an advantage of the system of individual examination, that it enables us to estimate by a more exact numerical ratio the manner in which the elementary subjects are respectively taught. As tested by the per-centage of failures in the examinations under the Revised Code, Reading appears to be the best taught subject in elementary schools; Writing comes next in order of excellence, and Arithmetic last,—the difference between reading and writing, however, being much smaller than that between writing and arithmetic. In day-schools the per-centage of failures to examinations in reading was 12·66, in writing 14·90, in arithmetic 23·43. In evening schools the failures are naturally more numerous, but less so in arithmetic than in the two other subjects. The fact that the evening schools are in many cases taught by the same masters as the day schools, proves that the failures cannot always be attributed to inefficient teaching, but that the character and aptitude of the scholars must always be taken into account. This remark obviously admits of a much more general application, and suggests that the grand principle of payment for results must as often place the teacher at the mercy of dull scholars in one part of the country, as at the indifference of parents, or the inclemency of the weather in the other.

The fallacy of supposing that the results of these examinations afford a fair criterion of judging of the teacher, and therefore a fair standard for paying him, is still further exposed by the fact that the ratio of these per-centages in the aggregate of scholars is by no means constant throughout the different Standards. Nearly two-thirds of all the day scholars presented for examination under the Revised Code, were presented in Standards I. and II.* In these Standards the failures in reading are nearly three per cent. more than in writing. In the other four Standards the failures are from seven to eleven per cent. more

in writing than in reading. The practical conclusion from this is, that an average schoolmaster teaches writing better than reading to his youngest scholars, and reading much better than writing to the older ones; and it is according to this conclusion that he is paid. But is it not a practical absurdity? Does it not show, either that the programme of examination is very badly arranged, or that the system is radically faulty? At one and the same time it rewards the self-same man for teaching reading and writing well, and punishes him for teaching writing and reading badly. That different classes will shew different degrees of proficiency in the same subjects is undeniable, for it is what every teacher knows to be the most common experience. In exhibiting these differences, the statistical tables before us show us nothing either impossible or new. But the question is, whether this is the teacher's fault or his misfortune? Now the teaching power is the only constant quantity throughout the different Standards, while the children's natural aptitude and power of attention are variable. But it is to the variable, and not to the constant, quantities in such calculations that changes must be ascribed. Yet the teacher is made to suffer for them, as if he were solely to blame. Thus again does the Revised Code place the schoolmasters at the mercy of influences over which they can have no possible control.

Mr M. Arnold hints at the obvious explanation of this anomaly when, in the passage above alluded to, he refers to the timidity natural to tender years. But while shyness may prevent a little fellow from opening his mouth to read before a stranger, no such feeling will make him bungle in copying a few letters on a slate. Possibly, too, the inspector may be apt to employ a different standard in judging of the writing of young children from that to which he refers their attainments in reading. He naturally reasons that they should read better than they should write, at such an age, and he is therefore more easily satisfied with their performances in the latter than in the former exercise. Now, if such differences and varying degrees of difficulty exist, they should certainly be recognised in the examination; and if recognised in the examination, they ought most assuredly also to be recognised in the scale of payments. If greater proficiency is looked for in reading than in writing, a greater monetary value should be attached to it; and this is all the more reasonable, since, in the earlier standards, reading must occupy a much larger portion of the school time and of the teacher's attention than either writing or arithmetic; nearly as much, pro-

* For the exact number, see last Number of *The Museum* (July), p. 139.

ably, as the two latter put together. Instead, therefore, of reducing the grant by one-third for each failure in any subject, it would be more just and reasonable to augment the attendance grant for each success by a larger proportion of the 8s. for reading than for writing, and for writing than for arithmetic. Suppose that the three portions into which the grant of 8s. was divided were 2s. 6d. for reading, 2s. 6d. for writing, and 2s. for arithmetic, in an average school with 100 day scholars, in Standard I., the results would be (disregarding the fractions),—

80 successes in reading,	£14 0 0
83 " " writing,	10 7 0
77 " " arithmetic.	7 14 0
	<hr/>
	£42 1 0

To compare this with the present plan of payment, we shall give the results in a similar case:—

The total grant for 100 children is	£40 0 0
20 failures in reading,	£2 13 4
17 " " writing,	2 5 4
23 " " arithmetic,	3 1 4
	<hr/>
	8 0 0
	<hr/>
	£32 0 0

It will, of course, be objected to this proposal that it would not accomplish the grand design of the Revised Code,—to reduce the expenditure of the Committee. To this we reply that we are more concerned about a just distribution of the grant, even of a reduced grant, than about its absolute reduction. A saving effected by such manifest and reckless injustice can never be satisfactory—in short, cannot be tolerated. We would rather have the maximum grant for the first three standards reduced to 7s., or even to 6s. 6d., and distributed on reasonable principles, than have a fictitiously large grant like the present one so unreasonably curtailed. Even a small capitation grant, distributed according to some such plan as we have hinted at, would yield as large a revenue to the schools as they at present gain, without so manifestly exposing them to grievous and unreasonable hardships.

It is a common complaint of the Inspectors, in connection with each of the elementary subjects,

that failures are caused, and the grant consequently forfeited, by bad methods of instruction. Reading, for example, is said to be frequently not so much *taught* as *heard* by the teacher, not so much *learned* as *practised* by the scholars. This easy and lazy method of merely "hearing lessons" is, we fear, but too common. There are two expedients by which it may be corrected. If the teacher were first to read the passage to his pupils, both he and they would have a better standard before them,—they to aim at, and he to judge by. Or if he were to close his own book, and simply listen to his scholars, he would so completely depend upon their reading for his knowledge of the sense of the passage, that he would more readily detect the slightest faults of pronunciation, emphasis, and tone. The teaching of writing is not satisfactory, and that of spelling, which the new programme very closely connects with it, is still less so. This is by more than one Inspector attributed to the abuse of dictation, which, however useful in testing spelling, is apt to fail, unless where used with singular care, as a method of teaching it. Errors are confirmed by the act of writing them, and unless each exercise is immediately and systematically corrected by the hand of the pupil, dictation is very apt to have this effect. Some of the Reports note an improvement in the method of teaching arithmetic. In others it is still censured as mechanical and irrational. Even the black-board, which should be the great means of preventing this evil, is found in some cases to be used so as to encourage it. Religious knowledge is recognised as being well taught in most schools, but there are not a few complaints of its being lifeless, barren, and dry.

The year has been, as the Committee say, one of transition, and consequently, one of uncertainty and perplexity. We have therefore refrained from any general estimate of the working of the New Code. The data for such an estimate are not yet before us. Only 1,828 out of 11,230 schools have been reported upon under it. We must wait another year before the full effect of the recent changes can be correctly ascertained. We wish we could encourage our readers to believe that the time of anxiety is really past.



THE SOURCE OF THE NILE.

IN a former number of *The Museum** we sketched briefly the progress of African discovery during the last hundred years, and in doing so referred, in conclusion, to the great achievement of the present day, the discovery of the source of the Nile. Since then, the publication of Captain Speke's *Journal* has given us the details of his interesting expedition; and the importance of the subject would seem to demand a fuller notice at our hands. To the general reader the book is of the most absorbing interest, not only because it solves the problem which has baffled the attempts of travellers for above two thousand years, but also because it treats of people and places never before visited by any European, and presents to us pictures of life and manners with which we have hitherto been totally unacquainted. Besides, the courage, tact, and perseverance with which the gallant explorers made their way through unheard of difficulties and ever-recurring obstacles evoke the sympathy of the reader, and give him a personal interest in their ultimate triumph. It is not our object at present, however, to trace the adventures of the enterprising travellers, but to notice some of the important additions to the science of geography which has resulted from their long and arduous labours.

The discoveries of Speke and Grant tend to confirm the hypothesis of Sir R. Murchison, "that the interior of Africa was a watery plateau of less elevation than the flanking hill ranges;" for in the early part of their journey they crossed a coast range, about 5000 feet in elevation, from which the interior of the continent descended to about half that elevation, Lake Tanganyika lying about 1850 feet above the level of the ocean. But it would seem that an additional feature in the physical geography of Africa is the presence of an equatorial chain of mountains which, running east and west, divides the depression of the interior into two large basins. On the eastern side of Lake Nyanza are the summits of Kenia and Kilimandjaro which, according to the statements of the missionaries Rebmann and Krapf, confirmed as they have been by Baron Von Decken, attain an altitude of 20,000 feet. The Nyanza itself lies 3740 feet above the sea, while to the west rise the Mountains of the Moon, which, in the peak of Mfumbiro, reach an absolute elevation of 10,000

* October 1863.

feet. This range appears to be continued westward: for on the other side of the continent, in about the same parallel, M. Du Chaillu traced, for a distance of 400 miles into the interior, a range which in some parts attained an altitude of 12,000 feet. And as neither he on the one side, nor Captain Speke on the other, could learn the termination of the mountains which they describe, it seems not improbable* that both were but exploring the different extremities of one chain.

And here we cannot help remarking how completely our map-engravers seem to ignore the discoveries of M. Du Chaillu. Because, forsooth, some gentlemen, having little or no acquaintance with the parts he visited, have presumed to cast doubt upon the statements of that enthusiastic traveller, geographers seem afraid to make use of any of the fruits of his laborious undertaking; and while the cheapest atlases portray the discoveries of Livingstone, Burton, and Speke with tolerable accuracy, we have never yet met with a map which shews the equatorial chain of Du Chaillu, or the course of the river Agobay, except the one which accompanies the account of his adventures.

The equatorial chain of the African continent, or at least those portions of it which have been actually explored, lying as it does under the zone of almost constant precipitation, is watered by abundant showers. Captain Speke mentions that "on the equator, or rather a trifle to northward of it, it rains more or less the whole year round, but most at the equinoxes," (Introduction, p. xvi.). The mountains and elevated plains thus copiously watered produce an abundant vegetation consisting, on the western side of the continent, of huge forests, the abodes of the savage gorilla; and on the eastern parts, of low lands fertile as a garden, or of round-topped grassy hills, recalling to the minds of the travellers the quiet beauty of English lake scenery. The super-abundant moisture drained from these elevated tracts, collects in large lakes, which in their turn give birth to gigantic rivers. The sources of the Agobay and Congo are as yet unknown; the Zambesi probably flows from lake Tanganyika, as Dr Livingstone was informed by Arabs from Zanzibar; while the great object of Captain Speke's last expedition was to shew the connection between the Nile and the Victoria Nyanza.

Notwithstanding the universal acclamation with which Captains Speke and Grant were greeted on their return to Europe, there are yet many per-

sons who are inclined to doubt whether even yet the true source of the Nile has been discovered. Some look upon the Bahr-el-Ghazal as the main stream, and instance the statements of the officers of the Egyptian expedition, who without hesitation concluded that it was the true Nile, and would have explored it accordingly had not their instructions compelled them to ascend the other stream. A party of Dutch ladies are, however, engaged at the present time in exploring this feeder, and they may be able shortly to give some information regarding its size and character. Others, again, think that the Sobat, or perhaps the Asua, both of which enter the White Nile on the right bank, contains the true source of the river. And this opinion is supposed to be strengthened by the information gained by Dr Krapf, who was informed that a stream—Nsaraddi—rising at the foot of mount Kenia took its way to a lake called Baringo, which lies at the north-east of Nyanza. But whatever may be the amount of water contributed by any of these streams, the fact remains that Captain Speke has shewn the connection between the Nile and the Victoria Nyanza, and that the latter stretches as far south as 3° south latitude. Now, as the source of a river is always to be looked for in its longest feeder, and as no one contends that the other streams rise any great distance south of the equator, it follows that even if any of them contributed a greater volume of water, still the White Nile ought to be considered the parent stream. But Captain Speke declares, as the result of careful observation, that none of them equals in volume the river which issues from the Nyanza at Ripon Falls; "for in every instance of its branching it carried the palm with it in the distinctest manner" (p. 610), while as for the Bahr-el-Ghazal, it was only "a small piece of water resembling a duck-pond buried in a sea of rushes" (p. 609).

It appears, then, that our daring adventurers are in no great danger of losing the laurels which they have so nobly won, and the source of the Nile may indeed be looked upon as settled. We shall now trace the river from the Victoria Nyanza to the confluence of its last feeder, the Athara.

It was in 1858 that Captain Speke first beheld the Nyanza, and he thus describes his feelings at the time:

"This view was one which, even in a well-known and explored country, would have arrested the traveller by its peaceful beauty. The islands, each swelling in a gentle slope to a rounded summit, clothed with wood between the rugged, angular, closely cropping rocks of granite, seemed mirrored in the calm surface of the lake, on which

I here and there detected a small black speck, the tiny canoe of some Muanza fisherman. On the gently shelving plain below me blue smoke curled above the trees, which here and there partially concealed villages and hamlets, their brown thatched roofs contrasting with the emerald green of the beautiful milk-bush, the coral branches of which cluster in such profusion round the cottages, and form alleys and hedgerows about the villages as ornamental as any garden shrub in England. But the pleasure of the mere view vanished in the presence of those more intense and exciting emotions which are called up by the consideration of the commercial and geographical importance of the prospect before me. I no longer felt any doubt that the lake at my feet gave birth to that interesting river, the source of which has been the subject of so much speculation, and the object of so many explorers." — (*Blackwood*, August 1859.)

The Victoria Nyanza is triangular in shape, the base of the triangle almost coinciding with the equator. As far as is at present known, the Kitangulú is the principal feeder of this lake, as the Arabs who have travelled on the east side of the Nyanza informed Captain Speke that the country there was hilly and full of salt lakes and rivulets, but had no river at least as far as the first degree south latitude. At the north-east corner of the Nyanza there is a smaller lake connected with it by a narrow channel; and this is probably the Baringo lake mentioned by Dr Krapf. If the information respecting the stream rising at the foot of Mount Kenia be correct, then it probably flows into this arm of the Nyanza; and it is also probable, though by no means certain, that the river Asua flows out of the Baringo.

The river Kitangulú rises on the eastern slopes of the Mountains of the Moon, and drains several lakes, the principal of which is the Little Windermere, a beautiful sheet of water embosomed in low green hills. On the banks of this lake stands the palace of Rumanika, King of Karague, the most amiable and intelligent of all the rulers whom Speke and his companion met with in the interior. The Kitangulú separates Karague from the kingdom of Uganda, and at the place where our travellers crossed it, it was a noble stream, about eighty yards broad, very deep, and was running with "a velocity of from three to four knots an hour."

At the court of Uganda, Speke was detained about six months by the capricious young king, who was willing to shew his guest every kindness, but would not hear of his departure. At length, when he obtained leave to proceed on his journey,

he failed in obtaining boats to convey him to the outlet of the Nyanza, since the fleet admiral declared that dangerous shallows existed along the northern shore of the lake, and that no boats ever ventured in that part. Our explorers were therefore obliged to proceed by land, and they obtained their first view of the Nile at the Urondogani station:—

"Here at last I stood on the brink of the Nile; most beautiful was the scene, nothing could surpass it. It was the very perfection of the kind of effect aimed at in a highly kept park, with a magnificent stream from 600 to 700 yards wide, dotted with islets and rocks, the former occupied with fishermen's huts, the latter by sterns and crocodiles basking in the sun—flowing between fine high grassy banks, with rich trees and plantains in the background, where herds of the *nnunnu* and *hartebeest* could be seen grazing, while the hippopotami were snorting in the water, and *florikan* and *guinea-fowl* rising at our feet."—(P. 459).

The exploring party now marched up the left bank of the river to the Ripon Falls, which are about 12 feet deep, and from 400 to 500 feet broad. Having thus traced the river to its outlet from the Nyanza, Speke returned to Urondogani and took boats, expecting that all his walking was over. Owing, however, to the opposition of the natives, the expedition was compelled to land before proceeding any great distance, and the journey to the palace of Kamraai, the king of Ungoro, was made overland. Besides the White Nile, several "rush-drains" leave the Nyanza at its northern extremity. Some of these are of great width, but generally very shallow, and they ultimately drain into the main stream. Upon one of these "drains"—the Kafu—and near its junction with the Nile, stands Kamraai's palace. Here our travellers were detained for about two months, during which time almost everything that they could part with was begged from them by the "royal mendicant." At length, having obtained boats they dropped down the Kafu, and having reached the main stream they presently arrived at the Karuma Falls. "Falls, however, is scarcely the proper term, as they are a mere sluice or rush of water between high syenitic stones, falling in a long slope down a ten feet drop."

At this point the Nile makes a sudden bend to the west and is connected in some manner with the lake Little Luta Nzige. Speke was, however, anxious to meet Petherick, who, he expected, was waiting for him at Faloro; he therefore crossed the Kidi wilderness,—which is covered with long grasses and thick jungle, and abounds in elephants,

antelopes, and buffaloes,—and struck upon the river again, near the confluence of the Asua. Petherick, however, was not here, but had left an agent who, after collecting his ivory, conducted our travellers to Gondokoro. Here Captain Speke met with an old friend, Mr Baker, who had come up the river with three vessels "fully equipped with armed men, camels, horses, donkeys, beads, brass-wire, and everything necessary for a long journey," rather wishing to find the explorers in "a terrible fix," that they might have the pleasure of helping them out of it. Baker now asked if there was anything left for him to do, as he did not like returning home without doing something to recompense him for the trouble and expense he had incurred in getting up his expedition. Speke recommended him to explore the Luta Nzige, and he is now doing so.

The remainder of the Nile's course is very briefly described: "The first affluent, Bahr-el-Ghazal, took us by surprise, for, instead of finding a huge lake, as described in our maps, at an elbow of the Nile, we found only a small piece of water resembling a duck-pond, buried in a sea of rushes. The old Nile swept through it with a majestic grace, and carried us next to the Geraffe branch of the Sobat River, the second affluent, which we found flowing into the Nile with a graceful semicircular sweep and good stiff current, apparently deep, but not more than fifty yards broad. Next in order came the main stream of the Sobat, flowing into the Nile in the same graceful way as the Geraffe, which in breadth it surpassed, but in velocity of current was inferior. The Sobat has a third mouth farther down the Nile, which unfortunately was passed without my knowing it; but as it is so well known to be unimportant, the loss was not great. Next to be treated of is the famous Blue Nile, which we found a miserable river, even when compared with the Geraffe branch of the Sobat. It is very broad at the mouth, it is true, but so shallow that our vessel with difficulty was able to come up it. It had all the appearance of a mountain stream, subject to great periodical fluctuations. I was never more disappointed than with this river; if the White Nile was cut off from it, its waters would all be absorbed before they could reach Lower Egypt. The Atbara, which was the last affluent, was more like the blue river than any of the other affluents, being decidedly a mountain stream, which floods in the rains, but runs nearly dry in the dry season."—(Pp. 609, 610.)

In concluding this brief notice of the discoveries of Captains Speke and Grant, we may mention that an Italian gentleman, named Miani, who has

already ascended the Nile as far as Faloro, and whose name, carved on a tree, was pointed out to Speke when at that place, is now in Egypt organising a fresh expedition to explore the Nile; for he denies that its source has yet been discovered. M. Du Chaillu has also returned to

Africa, determined, if possible, to cross the continent from west to east; while Captain Speke, we believe, has announced his intention of again returning to the Mountains of the Moon, with the object of discovering, if he is able, the source of the Congo. W. L.

RESULTS OF THE REVISED CODE.*

[From the *Rev. G. R. Moncrieff's General Report for 1863.*]

I WILL now give in detail the results of my experience, so far as it has gone. First come *seven* new schools, never before inspected; *one* in a town (Workington), *one* in what may be called a suburb of Middlesborough (Port Clarence), *one* in a colliery village (Cornforth), and *four* purely agricultural, Temple Sowerby, Brenckburne, Mindrim, and Sedgefield. Of these, Port Clarence was *bad*; Workington in very poor state (as might be expected in a place of that size, which four years ago had no public school of any kind); Brenckburne, Mindrim, and Sedgefield, *weak*; Temple Sowerby, *very fair*, and Cornforth, on the whole, *creditable*. The results were these:—

TABLE I.

No.	School.	Average Attendance.	Presented.	Passed.†	Infants	Grant per Head on Average.	Probable Loss per cent.
1	Workington, Free (2 departments).	128	116	153	30	s. d. 8 4	14.9
2	Brenckburne - -	27	33	39	3	6 11	66.1
3	Temple Sowerby -	27	25	42	1	8 1	60.6
4	Mindrim - - -	48	36	45	6	7 4	23 (gain)
5	Cornforth - - -	74	62	96	0	7 4	20.8 (loss)
6	Sedgefield - - -	40	35	48	3	7 1	50.8
7	Port Clarence - -	50	43	42	11	NIL	0.
	Total - - -	404	261	484	53	6 9 or (without No. 7) 7 9	43.

In estimating the loss per cent. I have taken the old capitation grant at 10 per cent. on the average attendance (a low estimate). This, with

* Report of the Committee of Council on Education, 1863-64.

† The unit here is one child passed in one subject; a child passed in three subjects counts as three. The figures given include all passed on examination, without deducting those of a grade superior to that of labourer, for whom no grant was allowed. The calculation is made for a year's grant: in all the new schools, and most of the old ones, the actual grants were for broken periods.

the teacher's augmentation, is the probable grant under the Old Code. In Nos. 2, 3, 6, I have assumed the "probationer's" grant of £25; in the others, the augmentation according to certificate.

I shall not reason much on these data; from so small an induction no inference could have much weight. I shall simply point out some facts which lie on the surface.

(a.) The proportionate loss increases as the average attendance decreases, i.e., the smaller the school the greater the proportionate loss.

(b.) In the most favourable case, Cornforth, the "gain" arises from there being no pupil-teacher. A pupil-teacher's *first year* stipend would have turned the balance the other way.

(c.) On the other hand, all these schools, and especially very sequestered ones like Brenckburne and Mindrim, were at a disadvantage from the children's want of familiarity with examinations. This will be less felt next time.

Here ends my experience of the working of the Revised Code within the year ending August 31st, 1863, to which, strictly speaking, this report is confined. The details of inspection since that date will belong to a future report. I will only say that out of 18 departments (boys and girls) in Stockton, Darlington, Barnard Castle, Durham, Alnwick, and Jarrow, having altogether 1630 children in average attendance, out of 1297 presented, I passed 2553 units (equivalent to 851 children); so that on the average each child may be said to have passed in two subjects. In six of these departments, on which the Lord President's decision has been given, the average grant was 8s. 1d. per head on the average attendance, or about 4d. per head above that of the new schools in Table I. In the infant departments of the same schools the grants are higher, averaging 9s. 6d. per head on the attendance. But I doubt whether the general earnings of infant schools will be found quite so high.

It does not always follow that the teacher who

has succeeded in passing the greatest proportion of those presented has thereby proved his school to be the most efficient. Much depends on the principle on which his lists have been made out. In every school, I think, the lists have been thoroughly *genuine*. I have seen no tendency to "*packing*," but, on the contrary, while the whole body of teachers have striven, with remarkable fairness, to carry out the intentions of the Code, not a few have seemed to me to err in unduly pushing upward children who might fairly have been presented in a lower standard. Sometimes from over-confidence, oftener from the feeling that they were bound to produce scholars in every or almost every grade. This last impression is, I find, from the "supplementary rules," more correct than I had previously supposed. It is now of course incumbent on every teacher to present a class as high as Standard III., and very desirable, for the sake of a full grant, to have some children who can pass in Standard IV. But still, whatever the penalty, it will in the long run be better to incur it than to mar the teaching of a whole school by attempting to build without a foundation. It is better, that is, if these be the only alternatives, to pass a whole 1st class in Standard III., even with a deduction of 1-10th from the whole grant, than to place half a dozen of the best scholars in the disheartening position of attempting, only to fail in the attempt, arithmetic and dictation which they know to be beyond their power. It is better, because it is sounder in itself and more honest towards the children. The reasons why they have not made more progress may or may not be beyond the teacher's control. In well organised schools of old standing, this particular difficulty will seldom occur: the whole of the first class will be at or beyond Standard IV. The exceptional cases will be either *new schools* or very *fluctuating schools*, in which it may often be impossible to fulfil the condition, without inconveniently reducing the number of the first class—sometimes, for a single year, impossible to fulfil it at all. Even so, it may still be right and wise on general grounds to enforce a rigid rule which a teacher may think harsh in its application to himself. He may feel this a grievance, but it is better to lose by a rule than to lose by failures. The one is once for all, the other entails the necessity of continuing to push children year by year beyond their natural standard. The rule, which is intended to guard against indolent teaching, or unfair manœuvring under examination, can never be meant to encourage unsound professions of attainments not really reached. This was the greatest evil of the

old style of teaching, and is the great temptation still of all inferior teachers. There can certainly be no intention of encouraging or rewarding it. The true influence of these rules is in impressing on teachers beforehand the necessity of reaching a certain standard; but, when it comes to classifying the children for examination, I should still say, as I have said all along, "place each child where he or she can probably pass, count no consequences, but let the examination list be an honest representation of the real state of the school, to the best of your judgment." Any cases which would not come under the form of classification prescribed by the supplementary rules, must imply some error in the arrangement of the school classes. But these, I believe, would be very few.

I wish it were possible to allow children "presented" but not "passed," or at least those who have failed in all subjects, to be again presented under the same standard. Practically, I suppose, this is impossible. But I shall be very much inclined in future to consider any large proportion of failures as indicating imperfect acquaintance on the part of the teacher with the real state of his school, and as therefore deserving of a further penalty, besides the loss of so many items in the examination grant. For nothing can be more injurious to a school than to have a large number of children in the anomalous position of having to look forward to examination in one group, because they have been "presented" in the next below it, but having also to be taught with another group, because practically they belong to it, having "failed" in examination on its subjects. The responsibility of avoiding this is thrown on masters and teachers; the only safe course is steadily to throw out of the examination list altogether every child who is not likely to pass in the proper standard. This should be done, even if the child is about to leave; we have no right to saddle our neighbour's school with the anomaly which we should seek to avoid in our own.

I will now state, as simply and as briefly as I can, the actual effects of recent changes, so far as I can trace them in my short experience of their operation.

(a.) The first and most striking is the neglect of the higher subjects of instruction. A little geography is still taught in most schools, still less of grammar, and very often nothing of history. This was certain to be the case, especially at first; the pressure of the new requirements has concentrated the attention of teachers on elementary subjects, and classification by "standards." To some extent there may soon be a reaction, but I

do not expect, for some years to come, to see oral teaching of geography, grammar, or history resume anything like its former place.

The oral teaching might be dispensed with, or kept within narrow limits, without abandoning the subjects taught. Home lessons tested by written examinations might to a large extent take their place. But the subjects themselves cannot I am certain be spared, not only—indeed not so much—for the specific information to be conveyed, as for the purpose of drawing out the general intelligence of the children. Already, if I do not deceive myself, there is a difference; there is less spirit, less power of thought, less willingness to think. It is no doubt true that the inspection does not now put these powers to the test as it used to do. Still I think I am not mistaken in believing that there is already a change for the worse. For this there seems to be no remedy, till experience shews that children cannot do really well in anything, without being trained to think and to follow thought. I cannot take upon me to advise teachers or managers to devote time to these matters at the risk of losing part of their expected incomes; nor do I conceive that I have any right to recommend the infliction of a penalty, be the pretensions of the school what it may, for neglect of subjects not required as conditions of the grant.

(b.) Of the lower classes I should say, they are better drilled, better used to examination, and undoubtedly better "*crammed*." The performances of Standard I. have in many schools been very creditable. How far it will hereafter be found to serve as a real foundation remains to be seen. My impression is that most of the work of Standard I., indeed all except the reading, may be and sometimes is the work of a very short time. In Standard II. the work is respectable but not high; the reading and writing generally passable, while there are a good many failures in arithmetic. But if I am asked generally, without reference to the standard work, "Have these classes decidedly improved?" I should say that in the best schools I do not perceive any essential change, and that what change there is, is not in some respects for the better. I think there has only been one case in which I have been struck by a decided improvement, and in that case there was at last inspection a great deficiency of books, which has now been supplied. On the other hand, in all but the best schools there is a tendency to curtail, sometimes to omit altogether, the religious instruction of the younger children; and I think also I can trace the effect of harder *driving* in details in their more jaded and less interested

look, as though they liked school somewhat less than they used to do. I confess I shall not be reconciled by quicker advances in knowledge (supposing them to be attained) to the loss of what has always been one of the chief boasts of our system, the children's love of school and the moral influences grounded on that love.

(c.) Even in my short experience, the results of the examination have, in several instances, been seriously affected by an element not reducible to theory, viz., *weather*. The most striking instances have been at Alnwick girls' national school, at Lady Waterford's school at Ford, and the colliery school at Collierley. Rain in the first instance and snow in the two latter, diminished by 25 30 per cent. the chances of the examination day. The *exact* number at Alnwick was, 22 absentees out of 79 on the list for examination.

(d.) I am speaking now of results not causes. Yet there is one cause already in partial operation which deserves to be noticed,—the reduction of the number of teachers. My experience so far is to this effect.

In not one of the *new* schools, except Workington, were any candidates for apprenticeship presented.

In each of the *three* schools in Darlington one pupil-teacher had retired from the service; in St Cuthbert's there was another vacancy impending. Yet there were no candidates.

At Stockton Trinity, with an average attendance of 81 and no pupil-teacher, there was no candidate.

At Stockton industrial school, with two apprenticeships on the point of expiring, there was no candidate.

At Stockton St Thomas's there was one male candidate, the master's brother.

At Barnard Castle there was a full supply of candidates to fill the three vacancies.

In the four boys' schools in Durham there was no vacancy. In each of the two practising schools connected with the female training college, there was one vacancy and a candidate to fill it.

At Jarrow there was no male and no qualified female candidate.

At Alnwick national boys' school, one pupil-teacher had retired, another was useless and likely to be withdrawn: there was no candidate. In the girls' school there was no vacancy.

In the Duke's school, the pupil-teacher was retiring; there was no candidate.

In the Corporation school, both apprenticeships were ended; there was no candidate.

The second master of Darlington St Cuthbert has left, and I understand it is likely that the

same thing will happen at Newcastle St Andrew's. On the other hand, second masters have been appointed at the Duke of Northumberland's school, Alnwick, and at Gateshead; assistant masters (ex-pupil-teachers) at Alnwick national, Alnwick Corporation, Barnard Castle, and possibly in other places.

On the whole, it seems that pupil-teachers are likely to disappear, or be reduced to a very small number, confined probably to a few town schools. There is no evidence as yet that they will be replaced to anything like the full extent by second or assistant masters. The causes are chiefly two, the increased scarcity of candidates, and the still greater scarcity of funds. It is in vain to tell managers that the pupil-teachers will pay for their stipend by the increase of the grant; the answer is conclusive: on the one hand it is more than doubtful whether the services even of a good pupil-teacher will increase the grant by £10, which is equivalent to 25 children passing in all subjects; on the other hand, this is at least uncertain, and school committees are seldom in a position to incur certain liabilities on the strength of contingent, not to say improbable, income. A year or two hence it is possible that balance sheets may give more encouragement to financial ventures.

Connected with this dearth of candidates for apprenticeship is the comparatively deficient supply of candidates for admission into the training schools. My present district furnished 10 male and 5 female candidates; the four counties 13 male and 12 female. One candidate, Jane Ellen Fairbairn, of Hendon (Sunderland), has, for the first time on the female side, secured for the district the honour of the highest place on the list.

Evening schools are an important part of the present educational machinery. Their inspection is, however, difficult, and all the more so because they are chiefly found in towns, where the inspection is now fixed for the last quarter of the year, at the very beginning of the night-school season. I hope to be able to visit some of them in February and March, reserving my report till the regular inspection. Up to the present time I have only seen one new night school, viz., Bellingham, and examined the night scholars of another, viz., Mindrim. These are the only instances I have yet met with of evening meetings of country schools. That at Mindrim (now, I am sorry to say, discontinued) produced six or seven young men, shepherds, joiners, and so on, who seemed to be in earnest, and making some progress. That at Bellingham included 10 or 12 scholars, of very varied attainments; the master seemed to feel the labour too much for him.

Of the older night schools, Darlington St Cuthbert's had been discontinued, though not unlikely to be resumed or replaced by one at Trinity; Durham Blue Coat was hardly equal to its former condition; that at Henderson's factory was only meeting once a week, and for boys alone; Newcastle, Castle Garth, was rather improved, but still feeble; Bishop Auckland I did not see. On the whole, the question of evening schools as an important educational agency, cannot be said to have made much progress. I have heard, however, of several others projected, some of which may be in actual operation.

Let me here say a word on the much abused log-book. Very few teachers have yet learnt to value it as it deserves, or to use it so as to make it of value. The very few well kept log-books that I have seen go far to satisfy me that, rightly used, it is not only a check on carelessness, but a most efficient help to an accurate teacher. I hope to find it, on my second visit, bearing its testimony to the fact that the head teacher of each school has, week by week and month by month, "taken stock" of his classes, by that close review in detail of all their work, without which the most vigorous teaching may produce most disappointing results.

It would be premature to say much about the financial results of the Revised Code. My data are still so imperfect that I do not venture to submit any figures, or to estimate the average amount of loss under the Revised Code. The only point that seems to me clear is this, that there are only three classes of schools which can as a rule escape serious loss, viz., (1.) infant schools without pupil-teachers; (2.) schools with average attendance from 50 or 60 to 80, also without pupil-teachers; (3.) schools under "registered" teachers who had no augmentation to lose.

There are four possible ways in which this loss of Government aid can be met. Either—

- (a) By increased subscriptions; or
- (b) By increased school pence; or
- (c) By reduction of staff; or
- (d) By reduction of salary.

I do not hear much of increased subscriptions. The few who are givers generally feel that they are doing their part; and there is nothing in the present aspect of education to stir up those who have been apathetic.

An increase of school pence has been tried, with good results, in all the schools in Durham and elsewhere.

The reduction of the staff of pupil-teachers is proceeding rapidly.

The nominal salaries of teachers have nowhere,

I believe, been reduced. The most hard pressed managers are endeavouring to avoid a retrenchment so fatal. In a larger number of instances than I expected, they have undertaken to make good the entire loss of augmentation. More frequently they have given the teacher so large an interest in the grants as to encourage him to hope to replace the whole or the greater part of his former income from Government. Unfortunately, from the very nature of the case, the lowest salaries are found in the poorest schools; and consequently it is those teachers who had least before who ran the greatest risk of losing part of that

little. Town schools, town teachers, town managers, can generally take care of themselves; it is on poorly paid country teachers and country managers, who are already making sacrifices beyond their means, that the loss is falling with real severity. Still, up to the present time, I have only heard of one school withdrawn from inspection.

These are the present facts of my district. I wish I could draw from them encouragement or hope. Such as they are I leave them to speak for themselves.

PERSEUS AND ANDROMEDA.

OVID, METAM. IV. 662, *et seq.*



HE winds were shut in their eternal prison;
Bright in the sky the Morning-star had risen,
And was awakening all living things,
When Perseus donn'd his double ancle-wings;
Girt on his thigh his shining scimitar;
Then soar'd, and, flying, winnow'd the thin air.
Beneath him, as he wing'd his aery way,
Nations and lands innumerable lay;
Till pendulous he hovered o'er the place,
Where ancient Kepheus ruled an Ethiop race.
High on a rock, that faced the pitiless tide,
There stood, to expiate a mother's pride,
A maiden beautiful, whose arms around,
At Ammon's stern behest, rude chains were bound;
And but that in the breeze her locks were blowing,
And but that down her cheeks warm tears were flowing,
She stood a splendid statue, wrought in stone:
The hero gazed, and gazed on her alone,
And, lost in one long passion-tranced stare,
Forgot almost to flap his wings in air.

Alighting on the ground, thus speaketh he:
"Lady, these bonds were never meant for thee:
"To clasp so fair a form, the only chain
"Is such as maketh one of lovers twain:
"Tell me, I pray, thy country and thy name."
At first, she cannot speak for maiden shame:
Her blushes from his gaze she fain would hide
With both her hands; but both her hands are tied.
Her only answer is a burst of tears:
He grows importunate; until she fears
Her silence may appear from guilt to spring;
So she prepares to tell him everything;
Her father's name; her own; her native land;
Why she is doom'd a prisoner there to stand;
When, as she speaks, above the far sea-rim
Shore-wards a towering shape is seen to swim:

The maiden shrieks ; the father clasps his child ;
His wife—with better cause—is frenzy-wild :
Helpless beside her each fond parent stands,
With tears, that suit the time, and wringing hands.

“ Not weeping need ye now, but bold endeavour,”

Said Perseus ; “ we must save her now, or never.

“ Ye will have heard, ere now, the story told,

“ How Jove won Danaë with the shower of gold :

“ I am their son ; and on my shield I wear

“ The Gorgon-trophy of the snaky hair.

“ Methinks such high descent and high emprise

“ Alone might win me favour in your eyes,

“ But claims of birth and fame I put aside,

“ And with my good sword I would win a bride :

“ Give then, I pray you, yonder maid to me,

“ If this right hand of mine shall set her free.”

Spake Perseus : prayers with promises they shower—

No wonder—and a kingdom is the dower.

Lo ! as to port a stately man-of-war

Sails, push'd by favouring gale or straining oar,

So, with his big breast furrowing the deep,

The monster comes with a majestic sweep ;

And just as far off is he, as a sling

From Balearic hands the lead can fling,

When Perseus stamps both heels upon the ground,

And springs into the clouds with flying bound :

The monster sees his shadow skim the main,

And on the shadow wreaks a fury vain.

Then, as an eagle pounces down upon

A green-back'd serpent, basking in the sun,

And, lest he backward turn his venomous jaws,

Grips tight his scaly neck with ruthless claws ;

So from the clouds through the thin yielding breeze

Down on his huge foe swoop'd Inachidès,

And in its shoulder, as it plunged and roar'd,

Deep-buried to the hilt his shining sword.

The sea-beast, stung to fury with the blow,

Now rears to heaven, now dips the wave below ;

Now, writhing, on his foe turns fairly round,

Like wild-boar brought to bay with yelping hound :

The hero, to elude his murderous bite,

With nimble pinions springs to left and right :

Where'er a spot lies open to attack,

He thrusts ; now in the shell-encrusted back ;

Now in the flanks ; now where with lessening scale

The huge form dwindles to a fish's tail.

Forth from his cavernous jaws a mingled flood

The wounded monster throws of brine and blood :

Meanwhile, the hero feels his wings give way,

Heavy and drench'd with the continual spray :

So, o'er the waves where rises bare and dry

A rock, by billows wash'd when winds were high,

He lights, and grasps a ledge with his left hand,

And to the heart strikes home the fatal brand :

From all around a loud triumphant cry

Sets the shore ringing and the vaulted sky ;

He by the Sire and Queen Kassiope
Is hailed their saviour and their son-to-be,
And from the rock his fetter'd*bride unties,
His spur to valour and his splendid prize.

THE CORAL.

THE hero lifts a handful from the wave,
The clotted blood from off his arms to lave :
And, lest the sand should graze the Gorgon-face,
With sea-weed and with leaves bestrewn the place :
But scarce the plants had touch'd the magic head,
Through pith and sap the freezing influence spread ;
And, lost in wonderment, the Nymphs behold
Fibre and leaf congeal with sudden cold :
Curious, the touch they try with other weeds ;
To every touch the miracle succeeds :
The seed by handfuls scatter they in play
O'er neighbouring seas to waters far away :
Still, touch'd by sunlight, is the coral seen
To blanch and petrify its leaves of green ;
And in the sea-wave what a weed has grown,
Above the sea-wave hardens into stone.

D'A. W. T.

SCOTTISH POPULAR EDUCATION.

A HISTORICAL SKETCH.

PREVIOUS to the Reformation in 1560, our knowledge regarding common schools in Scotland is scanty, and somewhat uncertain. This only is established, that they were in existence

in considerable numbers long before that period. The precise date at which they were first introduced is hid in obscurity. Probably they were coeval with the introduction of Christianity, about the year A.D. 565. Education was a special object of regard to Columba and his followers, who about this time took up their abode on the surf-beaten shore of Iona. Young men flocked to their seminaries from all quarters, even from distant Norway and Sweden. To these was given such a training as was well suited to fit them to become missionary pioneers and heralds of the glad tidings that Columba had come to Scotland to announce. To a mental training, extended, yet minute, was added a physical training, not less necessary, to enable these primitive teachers not only to be self-supporting, but to lead the way in the arts and improvements of civilization. There is nothing new under the sun. Industrial schools, supposed by many to be a feature peculiar to modern edu-

cational effort, are found in Scotland coeval with the dawn of history. In one thing the system of St Columba, otherwise so admirable, is surprisingly deficient. It not only fails to recognise, but positively brands as dangerous, one of the educational agencies] that now-a-days is justly held to be among the most powerful and effective. We refer to the elevating and humanizing influence exercised by the mothers of a people. Not only was no special provision made for training women to the proper discharge of their important duties, as holding in their hands the future destinies of nations, but their very presence in the holy isle was guarded against. Cows were not permitted to come within sight of Columba's sacred dwelling, for this very cogent reason, "Where there is a cow there must be a woman, and where there is a woman there must be mischief." These opinions would no doubt become modified among his followers, the Culdees, but to what extent we know not. The curtain of darkness falls upon Scotland, and for five hundred years we can but guess her probable educational condition.

Charlemagne, who became sole King of France in 771, we know, held the principle, by many

supposed to be comparatively a modern one, that wherever there was a church there should be a school. The intercourse between France* and Scotland was, from the remotest ages, peculiarly close and intimate; in the time of this great ruler, markedly so. The most favoured guests at his table were learned men from Scotland. Scots scholars founded the University of Paris, 791; and thus procured privileges to their own nation which feudal subjects of the French king did not possess. Nor are proofs altogether wanting that Scotsmen, or the scholars of Scotsmen, founded the University of Shafhausen, as well as several of those in Switzerland, Germany, and Franche Comté.* Perhaps Charlemagne owed his liberal views on education to his Scottish friends, perhaps not. In either case, it supplies fair presumption that the rule of church and school may have been adopted in our own country. Be that as it may, we find schools in existence in various parts of Scotland at almost the earliest period of our documentary history. In 1124 we find one of the witnesses to a charter of confirmation styling himself "Berbeadh, rector of the schools of Abernethy." "Master of the schools of the city of St Andrews" appears also in a charter between 1211 and 1216. "Adam, master of the schools of Perth," was, about 1213, one of the judges named by Pope Innocent III. for settling some controversy that had arisen between the monks of Paisley and William, clerk of Sanquhar. There were schools in Perth even earlier than 1213. Robert, bishop of St Andrews between the years 1152-1159, confirmed to the monks of Dumfermline "the church of Perth and that of Stirling, and the schools." And again, in the period 1163-1172, Bishop Richard grants "to the Church of the Holy Trinity of Dumfermline, the school of Perth and the school of Stirling, and all the schools which belong to the said church, free and quit of all claim and exaction for ever." On the same kind of evidence, viz., designations in contemporary charters, we find there were schools in Linlithgow in 1187; Edinburgh, 1124-1153; in Roxburgh, 1147-1152; in Ayr, 1234; in Berwick-upon-Tweed, 1279; in Aberdeen, 1262-3; and at Brechin in 1429.

Now if we look at the nature of the evidence on which the preceding statements are made, incidental references in charters of corresponding dates, we are quite warranted in drawing the inference, that even so early as the twelfth century, that is, several generations before the days of Wallace and Bruce, Scotland occupied no in-

ferior position as an educated and educating nation. There are many probabilities against the preservation of those special charters referring either to school or schoolmaster or, if preserved, of their being accessible to the public. If Macaulay's New Zealander, moralising over the ruins of London Bridge, have no other means of estimating our present educational position, but contemporary charters that may then survive, we much fear he will hardly do justice to the philanthropy of 1864.

Of the supervision and internal economy of those early schools we know but little. They seem to have been entirely under the control of the church in the hands of the various great monasteries scattered through the country. By the constitutions of the cathedral of Aberdeen, settled in 1256-7, we find "it was of the chancellor's office that he should provide a proper master for the government of the schools of Aberdeen, able to teach the boys both grammar and logic." It was a part of the duty of this "master of the schools of Aberdeen" to see to the due attendance at matins and high mass, on all the greater festivals, of four singing boys, two who carried tapers, and two who bore incense. The chancellor of each diocese exercised entire control over all schools within his bounds. In the end of the fifteenth century, we find the chancellor of Glasgow successfully shewing, that from time immemorial he and his predecessors had had the unquestioned right of instituting and removing the master of the grammar school of Glasgow, and of taking care, rule, and oversight of the same, so that without the leave of the chancellor, for the time being, it was not lawful for any one to hold a grammar school, or publicly or privately to teach and instruct scholars in grammar, or youth in letters, within the aforesaid city. About the same date we find an ordinance of the chapter of Moray, that "a common school shall be erected and built in Elgin, by those who are bound to erect and build the same; and that the chancellor shall appoint and ordain a fit person to rule and govern the same, and to teach those who resort to it, and instruct them in grammar." In Brechin cathedral constitutions it was provided, that the college of choristers, founded in 1429, should have two chaplains, one to teach the "sang school," on the part of the cantor, the other to teach the grammar school on the part of the chancellor. But the rule of this dignitary was not quietly submitted to in all parts of the kingdom. In 1418, on the presentation of the provost and community of Aberdeen, a schoolmaster was inducted by the chancellor, who "testifies him to be of good life, of honest conversation, of great litera-

* See Muller's History of Switzerland, published at Vienna about 1796.

ture and science, and a graduate in arts." A little after, in the same fair city of Aberdeen, we find that a master of the grammar school "inquirit be the provost whomof, he had the said school—grantit in judgment, that he had the same of the said good toun—offerand him redly to do thame and thair bairnis service and plesour at his power, and renounoit his compulsator of the curt of Rome in all poyntis, except that it suld be lesum to him to persew the techaris of grammer within the burgh." This renunciation of the "compulsator of the curt of Rome" was made a considerable time before the Reformation.

The means by which subordination and obedience were enforced in these early schools, were identical with what has been more or less considered the ultimatum in common schools even to the present time—to wit, the rod. In Reginald's gossiping *Libellus de admirandis Beati Cuthberti virtutibus*, there is one of his miraculous passages which gives us a glimpse of light on this part of our subject. Reginald, the writer, was a monk of Durham in the twelfth century. "There is," says he, "in the foresaid village," (he is speaking of Norham on the Tweed) "a church, founded in ancient times, named in honour of the blessed Cuthbert, in which, by a custom now common enough," (remember, he is writing in the twelfth century) "boys frequently pursued their studies: sometimes drawn by the love of learning and knowledge, and other times, the master being angry, driven by the fear of rods. Whence one of the boys, Haldane by name, rendered cunning by fear, began anxiously and secretly to cogitate with himself, by what manner of means he might escape the blows and pains of the rod for his laziness. At length, therefore, he conceived that, with foolhardy temerity, he would steal the key of the church of the blessed Cuthbert, and no one hindering him, would throw it with all celerity into the river Tweed. So he immediately ran to a place called Padduwel, of infinite depth, which almost seems a sea for its immense profundity, and forthwith hid the key of the church, by throwing it into the deepest profound. And then he hid himself where neither the curious nor the officious would be able to touch him. And thus he fondly reckoned to have deceived his master, and, with the wished for freedom, to be able at once and for ever to escape the slavery of learning. For he did not imagine that another key could be found by any means, and so he fell to congratulating himself with immense joy of heart." The poor rogue rejoices ere he is safe. At vespers, the people assemble, the key can't be found, the master attempts to break open the

door of the church, but finds it, as befits those warlike times, harder to do than he thought of; he desists, goes home much concerned, at length falls asleep; the blessed Cuthbert appears, and angrily demands why the ordinary services are not performed in his church? The priest confesses that the key is lost. "To whom," says the blessed Cuthbert, "to-morrow with the dawn, go to the fishers at Padduwel, on the Tweed, and buy at any price the first draught of their nets." The master gladly obeys. The fishermen agree to give the first draught for the love of the blessed Cuthbert alone. The nets are drawn, and they enclose one huge salmon. It is almost equal to the pleasure of eating a slice of the fish well seasoned, to read the thrilling account of the capture, in the garrulous Latin of the old chronicler. Reginald must have been a keen fisher himself, hence his enthusiasm. It is consoling to think that, though barrings out, and other equally naughty tricks of the present day, prove that the race of cunning, lazy, self-deceiving Haldanes, is still found among youth, the teaching profession can, at the same time, still produce masters of the gentle craft. Space forbids further extract. Let us refer our curious readers to cap. lxxiii. of the fore-cited history, which certainly exhibits the king of fishes in a somewhat new light. Suffice it to say, that the missing key was found stuck *across* the gills of the fish, with the ring protruding to serve for carrying both home. The consequences to the astute Haldane, the chronicler saith not. Most probably his glorious freedom had had an ignominious termination.

Our information regarding the books used in these pre-Reformation schools, though certain enough, is anything but comprehensive. A writer who seems to have flourished about the commencement of the thirteenth century, thus describes a child's first book of that period:—

"Quan a chyld to scole xal set be

A bok him is browt,

Nayl'd on a brede of tre,

That men callyt an a be co

Pratylych i-wrout.

Wrout is on the bok without,

V. paraffys grete and stoute,

Rolyd in rose-red,

That is set withoutyn doute

In tokenyn of Cristes ded."

That is, when a child is set to school, he gets a book called an A B C, nailed on a wooden board. This book is wrought very prettily on the outside with five great large nails coloured red, that without doubt betoken Christ's death on the cross. This is most probably the same book as is referred

to by Lydgate, who lived in 1430, when he says, in one of his minor poems,—

"How long ago lernyd ye, 'Crist crosse me speede!
Have ye no more lernyd your A B C?"

The name, "*Crist crosse me speede*," applied to this first of school-books, was very likely given from a large red cross on the first page. It is described in its appearance and uses, by a writer subsequent to Lydgate, probably about the end of the fifteenth century. He says:—

"Crosse was made all of red
In the begynning of my boke
That is callyd God me sped,
In the fyrste lesson that j toke
Thenne j lerned a and b,
And other letters by her names
But alwaye god spede me."

From the praiseworthy minuteness of this ancient versifier, we can gather that phonetics were in no particular favour with the pedagogues of those days. He "lerned a and b, and other letters, by her names." Unfortunately, we have no indication of the contents of this educational manual of the days of old. Most likely it had contained a summary of religious beliefs; thus serving the double purpose of teaching to read, and imprinting firmly on the memory the various articles of the church's faith. Books solely to teach the art of reading are quite modern. Wynton, the contemporary of Chaucer, 1328–1400, in the fifth book of his *Cronykil of Scotland*, thus writes:—

"Donate than wes in his state,
And in that time his libell wrate
That now Barnys oysys to lere
At thaire begynnynng of gramere;
And Saynct Jerome in thai yheris
The best wes callyd of his scoleria."

About two centuries later, 10th January 1519, we find in the records of the Town Council of Edinburgh, the following:—

"The quhilk day, the provost, baillies, and counsall, statuts and ordains, for reasonable cause moving thaim, that na maner of neighbour nor indweller within this burt, put their bairnis till any particulare scule within this toun, but to the principal grammer scule of the samyn, to be teichit in ony science bot alanerlie grace buke, prymary, and plane donat, under the pane of x sh: to be tane of ilk ny'bo' thet breke or dois to the contrair hereof."

The book referred to in each of the two preceding extracts was a small grammatical treatise, written by Donatus, the celebrated preceptor of St Jerome, who lived about A.D. 354. So long had this *donat*, as it was shortly called, been in use

for initiating youth into the mysteries of grammar, that the name became synonymous with elementary knowledge of any kind. Thus Chaucer says, "Then drave I me among drapers my donat to learn." It is another proof of its popularity, that it was one of the few *block-books* that made their appearance in the half-century immediately preceding the invention of printing. Several editions are said to have appeared in Holland between 1400–40.

These, *Crist crosse me speede*, *the grace buke*, *the prymary*, and *the plane donat*, are the only school books we have got trace of previous to the Reformation. About that time, and shortly after it, the number was considerably increased. To these we cannot refer more specially just now. As the great Reformation sun dawns, history shines with a clearer and steadier glow. In 1496, the national legislature is first found interesting itself in educational affairs, by passing an act ordaining all barons and freeholders of substance to put their eldest sons to school. As leading the van in scholastic legislation, we give the act *in extenso*:—

"Item, It is statute and ordanit throw all the realme, that all Barronis and frehaldaris that ar of substance put thair eldest sonnys and airis to the sculis, fra thai be aucht or nyne seiris of age, and till remane at the grammer sculis quhill thai be competentlie foundit and have perfite Latyne. And thaireftir to remane thre zeris at the sculis of art and jure, sua that thai may have knowlege and understanding of the lawis. Throw the quhillkis justice may reigne universalie throw all the realme, sua that thai that ar shereffis or jugeis ordinaris under the kingis hienes may have knowlege to do justice, that the pure pepill suld have na neid to seik our soverane Lordis principale auditouris for ilk small injure. And quhat baroun or frehalder of substance, that holds nochit his sone at the sculis as said is, haifand na lauchfull essonge, but failkies heirin, fra knowlege may be gottin thairif, he sall pay to the king the soume of xx. li."

Pinkerton, with his usual caustic temper, in his history of Scotland, sneers at the wisdom of the legislature in rendering it penal to neglect sending eldest sons to school, before inquiring if there were schools in existence to which to send them. From what we have already seen, we can have little difficulty in believing that there were schools in reasonable quantity. The fact that we find a considerable number of schools, in different parts of the country, referred to incidentally when they might just as likely have been passed over in silence, coupled with the additional fact of a special act of legislation, evidently taking for granted the existence of these in numbers suffi-

cient to meet the exigencies of the time, amply warrants us in drawing the conclusion, that Scottish popular education did not originate in the

Reformation, but only received a new development and fresh vigour, to suit the immensely increased intellectual and spiritual energy of the people.

EDUCATION IN AMERICA.*

THE Americans believe themselves superior in many respects to all other people, but nothing inspires them with the same pride as their system of public instruction. It is seldom we form correct judgment concerning ourselves. Accordingly, we find that our friends of the New World indulged in more than one illusion that recent events must have dispelled. Here, on the contrary, upon the question of education their judgment is just. Their schools are incomparable. In this direction, at least, they are at the head of civilisation.

"When the Pilgrim Fathers landed in Boston Bay in 1619, their first thought was for the young children they had carried out to this inhospitable land, still peopled by savage Indians. They knew it would be impossible for their settlement to resist the many dangers that beset it, if they failed in rearing up a vigorous, well-instructed, enlightened generation. Besides, these exiles were Christians, men accustomed to the constant meditation of the Scriptures, who knew how frequently these Scriptures enjoin the right nurture and training of children. Whilst they themselves were employed in cutting down the forest trees and defending themselves against the attacks of the savages, they left their children in the charge of schoolmasters selected from amongst their most competent men. They saw also that, in order to secure their religious future, it would be necessary to found a college, in which pastors should be prepared for their functions by sound and serious study. Within twenty years after their landing, they founded the University of Cambridge, which soon became the centre of the intellectual culture of New England.

"The impetus then given to American society has never relaxed. According as the small colony grew to be a great people, and grander perspectives presented themselves to the eye, the Americans became more and more alive to the necessity of concentrating their principal efforts upon the education of the young. The unspeakable import-

ance of public instruction is an axiom amongst them, and one to which they constantly revert. One of their most eminent men, Mr H. W. Beecher, lately expressed it in these terms: 'In forming a new generation, you create a new people.' The play of free institutions, even the excesses inseparable from extreme democracy, have served the cause of public instruction, each man feeling that the equilibrium of the nation is only to be preserved by the ballast supplied by education and the influence of the Church.

"Governments shrink from no expense in the matter of public instruction. The budget of education takes precedence of all others. In some States—in Maine, amongst others—one-third of the taxes is appropriated to this object, and it is with pleasure mingled with pride that the citizen sets apart the sum society demands from him for this noble purpose. When a new State is formed in the West, each district appropriates to its schools large grants of territory, which increase in value as the country increases in population. Sometimes these constitute property of enormous value. Private individuals, in their turn, endeavour to outstrip the munificence of the State. In all directions, by the side of the public schools are to be seen others founded by private liberality. Here it is a Mr Putnam who makes a donation of £15,200 sterling to build an academy at Newbury Port; there it is a certain number of citizens who collect amongst them £17,000 to defray the expenses of a magnificent academy at Norwich. There, again, it is a New York merchant who, in the midst of last year's commercial crisis, gave £80,000 for the construction of a splendid college for young girls near Poughkeepsie, upon the banks of the Hudson.

"The rank teachers occupy in society is the surest indication of the importance attached to instruction. In America, their vocation is held to be not less august or less efficacious than that of the pastor. In New England, the leading families of the country encourage their daughters to follow this profession. In Boston, you constantly meet ladies in the best society who began life as teachers in some village school, while from the clear, defined language they use in expressing

* From "Nine Months in the United States during the Crisis." By the Rev. George Fisch, D.D. London: Nisbet & Co. 1863.

their thoughts, you soon perceive they have been accustomed to give explanations to the young mind. It is generally believed that two or three years of this kind of occupation is the best training for the future mother of a family. It being impossible for New England to supply a sufficient field of occupation for its male and female teachers, it became the general nursery for the South, where the social standard is so widely different, and where labour and popular instruction are enveloped in the same contempt. The most celebrated preachers and the most eminent literary men make it a point of honour to write books for the use of children. Weekly papers devote their best columns to this purpose. Special papers devoted to the juvenile public have immense circulation. The *Child's Paper*, which was established at Boston four years ago, has already 300,000 readers. Journals of the same character may be counted by hundreds.

"Before entering into a detailed examination of the instruction given in schools, it is necessary we should endeavour to appreciate the home education and influence. The American family, speaking of it as an institution, has undergone the triple influence of Puritan manners, of the external condition of the people and their social institutions.

"It is the woman that stamps the real character of the family. It is she that is the great educator. We may even go the length of saying it is she that gives the measure of a civilisation. Now, nowhere is woman more respected than in America, and nowhere does she deserve it better. The American lady is, generally speaking, lively, intelligent, graceful, and dignified. The Miss Ophelia type is only to be met with in New England, and even there is becoming more and more rare. American women are better educated than those of Europe, and are altogether free from pedantry. Their ambition is to be accomplished housewives, but they pass with perfect ease from the kitchen to the drawing-room. In the Western States they are compelled to submit to the most irksome labour; but after having kneaded and baked the family bread with their delicate hands, they can take their place at the piano, or read a work on metaphysics. Accordingly, respect for women in America is what it was with us in our days of chivalry. In Europe those traditions are rapidly passing away. This respect for women exhibits itself in the smallest circumstance. The moment a woman enters a public carriage, the men rise at once to offer her the best place. A young girl might safely travel from one end to the other of the United States in those immense waggons of the railway which have but one class

and one compartment, without incurring the least risk of hearing one unbecoming word. She is under the very best protection—the protection of every one. If any European novice attempted to fail in respect to her, he would be in danger of expulsion at the next station.

"American morals are the result of strong religious convictions, permeating the habits, sentiments, and inner life of the nation. With the exception of Washington and New York, two cities which are almost European, one breathes a moral atmosphere in America entirely unknown to our old world. It is this that renders innocuous the perfect liberty enjoyed in all relations of life. Every evening, young men and young girls, who have been college or school comrades, meet in each other's saloons, and are left together without any kind of superintendence, as though they were brothers and sisters. Young men find in this daily contact an influence that nothing else can supply, a healthy moral atmosphere that saves them from many dangers; many of them owe to it their first religious impressions. Hence it is that marriages are generally well-assorted, being neither the result of financial combinations nor sudden passion, but prepared by mutual feeling and a thorough acquaintance, which have had time to ripen.

"The family in America is likewise influenced by the geographical circumstances in which this singular people is placed. Each family feels that it harbours but for a few years beings destined to be separated from each other by enormous distances. New England parents know well that the chances are that one son will one day go and colonise Iowa, Wisconsin, or the Minnesota, in the extreme North-west, that another will seek his fortune in San Francisco, another in New Orleans; and that the daughters will be married and settled hundreds or thousands of miles away from the paternal roof. This prospect reacts upon education, and gives it a more disinterested character; under such circumstances, it would be madness to bring up children for one's-self. The aim, therefore, is to bring them as rapidly as possible to that stage where they can dispense with all guidance.

"In like manner do political institutions react upon the family. In constituting itself a separate nation, the American branch of the Anglo-Saxons has developed still more that type of strong, decided individuality which belongs to the whole race. It has repudiated all factitious inequalities and unnecessary impediments likely to obstruct individual will. Its aim is that each citizen shall be able to bring into play the full measure of force

with which he is endowed. The security and prosperity of the State are based on the direct action of individual wills; everything is elective. The citizens themselves elect their magistrates and judges; the soldiers elect their officers. Each American feels himself personally responsible for whatever takes place in the Republic, of which he is one of the active forces. It is, therefore, necessary to begin at an early age the task of self-direction.

"The consequence of this is, that the ideal of education in America is the very reverse of ours. Our aim is to break down the will at the risk of destroying it. In the United States, on the contrary, the object is to give increased energy to it, even though the principle of authority should be sacrificed. Parents consider themselves merely as depositaries, charged by God to watch over immortal beings, whom He has formed and fashioned according to His good pleasure. This compound of various qualities constituting an individuality is a work of the Creator before which they bow with respect. They command no further than is necessary to render the child governable. And as he grows up, they retire into the background, exhibiting an amount of self-abnegation that is really wonderful. It is the young people that take the lead and give the tone to conversation; it is they who do the honours of the house; it is they who are foremost to give an opinion. One might say that in a country looking so much towards the future, the young are allowed to have the precedence over all other ages of life. When parents begin to find themselves growing old, they quietly submit to live in their own houses in the life of their children. Their voices are no longer heard vying with the noisy concert going on about them. In reality it is less frequently the parents who protect the children than the children who patronise the parents.

"Evidently this education is incomplete; accordingly religious men are profoundly concerned on the subject. Hitherto their attention has been so absorbed by the slave question, that it was impossible for them to attempt thorough and efficacious reaction in any other direction; but as soon as that matter is settled, they mean to apply their energies to the reform of domestic education. In fact, the result of the shortcomings we have noticed is to relax still more the family ties, which are already endangered by the force of circumstances. Respect for our superiors, which is rapidly disappearing in our European world, has almost died out in America, or if it still exist as a feeling that has its foundation in human nature, it is in a shape so capricious and so fugitive that

it cannot be counted on. The idea of authority does not exist. When the American obeys the guides whom he has chosen, he thereby means only to obey himself. Besides, this kind of education robs youth of much of its charm. The modesty and grace that naturally belong to the young girl may temper this free-and-easy style which makes her a woman at sixteen, but this precocious assurance is absolutely intolerable in young lads. There are no youths in America; they are little men, who at fifteen have decided views upon all subjects, a political party to which they are sworn, and a thorough persuasion of their own infallibility.

"Fortunately for this great people, their system of public instruction serves as a corrective to their private education. The latter fortifies the will—the former aims at rendering it supple and pliant. The most absolute obedience and the most rigid discipline prevail in all American schools. This contrast is easily explained. In ordering their schools with a sort of regimental unity of action, it is no part of their design to weaken the principle of individuality. In fact, the greater the number of children the more impersonal becomes the rule. Discipline is of itself established in the schools, which are, generally, very numerous attended. There is something in this common level to which all are subjected—in the word, the gesture, which makes a hundred wills move at once simultaneously—that pleases the imagination of the child. He vaguely understands it must be the same in the great world in which he is destined one day to take part. In this individuality-loving society, wherein the State leaves so much to the initiative of private persons, it has taken care to keep public instruction in its own hands. True, it has not made it obligatory. It has purposely avoided the system adopted in Prussia. The application of fines and imprisonment in order to enforce an inestimable benefit was repugnant to a free race, jealous, above all things, of the rights of the individual. But the same result was obtained by means worthier of the end to be accomplished. The State offers a truly superior education to all gratuitously, and such a boon it would be madness to reject. Every child receives complete instruction, such as prepares him to enter the special schools, or the university, without it costing his parents a farthing even for pens and paper. The knowledge here acquired is solid enough for the rich man's child and sufficiently simple for the poor. At New York the son of the Irish workman may be seen seated side by side with the son of the banker of prodigious wealth. The expense of this education

being defrayed by the public revenue, principally falls on those classes already the most taxed; but they willingly pay, in order that the advantages of instruction may be diffused amongst that portion of the population that are least favoured.

As for themselves, they send by preference their children to the public schools, knowing that nowhere else could they find such distinguished teachers.'



Correspondence.

EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

SIR,—I was much pleased with an article in *The Month* of July's *Museum*, under the head *Scotland*. Your advice there to teachers is sound and seasonable. In Scotland, the education question has too long been one of sectarian strife, because too long, and to by far too great an extent have the educational interests of the country been in the hands of the clergy. With us, the ministers are, except in a very few cases, the dominant powers for the advancement or the retarding of school education; the teacher acts only through the minister. The people take little interest in the matter, thinking, I suppose, that their interests are well cared for in the hands of the clergy; while the teachers seem hitherto to have looked upon the power vested in the ministers as a thing of course. And did these curators of education, as a body, further as they might either the educational interests of the people or those of the teacher (though I apprehend these are one and the same), this state of matters might be well enough; but too often, as we well know, ministers are either totally ignorant of,—what it is of so much importance to know in these days,—privy council legislation,—the laws and regulations and rules that concern schools and teachers; or consider education as only a thing of sects and churches—Established Church, Free Church, United Presbyterian education being all widely different from each other. In proof that neither of these assertions are idle fancies, but facts, permit me to quote a few words from the report of the proceedings of one of the largest, if not the very largest and most influential, of our provincial presbyteries (I enclose the whole report). The presbytery to which I refer were asked to lend their co-operation in petitioning Parliament against the introduction of the Revised Code into Scotland, the petition being the same as that adopted by the teachers of Edinburgh. After some discussion on the matter, one of the reverend presbyters thus addressed the meeting:—"He thought that they should act with the utmost caution, because he could not but remember what happened to Scotland, with regard to education,

when Scotland was treated apart, and when it was altogether a separate part of the British empire, and when it was altogether different morally; *while there was a great deal to be done for education, there was a great deal to be done against the Established Church*. It occurred to him, that whether they looked at it as that which concerned the interests of the public at large, or, whether it had reference to the interests of the Established Church, *that they should ask a modification of what the teachers asked*." I need not comment on this. The closing motion shews where our help is. "Dr — moved, That as the presbytery were not sufficiently informed regarding the subject, they should not petition at all." Teachers were sufficiently informed, but not the clergy. Now, what I ask of my fellow-teachers is this, why continually trust to clerical assistance in any educational movement? why not trust to ourselves? These reverend gentlemen have sufficient duties of their own to attend to, to give much of their time to ours. Why can we not have our synods and assemblies, unsectarian teachers' gatherings, as well as our clerical brethren. In short, why are we as a body so disunited? There, I apprehend, is our weakness; this is the reason why we seek so often the united assistance of the clergy. Why it should be so, I can hardly venture to say; but I think the time has come when we should seek to draw ourselves closer together. We are on the eve of a great national change, when all our strength may be required to aid the cause of education in Scotland. Such an opportunity may not occur again in the lifetime of any one of us. Let us band ourselves together, Established Church, Free Church, every Church, and stand up for our own interests, and those of the profession we follow. We want a head, a leading unsectarian party. We have an Educational Institute in Scotland, an institution which, I am sorry to say, has hitherto seemed to us provincial teachers a mere name: could it not take action in the matter? I only venture the suggestion, trusting some of your more able correspondents will take up the matter.—I am, &c.

A COUNTRY SCHOOLMASTER OF THE
ESTABLISHED CHURCH.

Notices of Books.

A History of the World, from the earliest Records to the present Time. By PHILIP SMITH, B.A., one of the principal contributors to the Dictionaries of Greek and Roman Antiquities, Biography, and Geography. Vol. I. Ancient History, from the Creation of the World, to the Accession of Philip of Macedon. Illustrated by Maps and Plans. London: Walton & Maberly. 1864.

This volume is the first of a projected series of eight, in which Mr Philip Smith is to rehearse the history of the world. Two volumes are to be devoted to ancient, two to mediæval, and four to modern history. Mr Philip Smith has many rare qualifications for the work he has undertaken. He has considerable literary ability, somewhat of the poetic temperament; far more original scholarship than his more famous brother, and a wide range of reading and wide sympathies. His previous studies have been such as peculiarly to fit him for doing well the portion which he has had to execute first. His articles on the lyric poets, and on the ancient artists, in Dr William Smith's "Dictionary of Biography," are among the freshest and best in that work. And his tenure of the professorship of ecclesiastical history in New College, must have prepared him for dealing with sacred as well as secular history. Accordingly, this first volume which lies before us can be commended very highly. Mr Smith has consulted the best sources of information. In many portions of the history of Greece, especially those relating to literature and art, he writes from a most intimate acquaintance with the original sources. But even in those cases where he cannot be regarded as an original investigator, he has taken the utmost pains to procure reliable information, and to state precisely what is certain, and what uncertain in the conclusions to which mature scholars have come. His chapters on the history of Egypt deserve especial praise in this respect.

The great aim of the work is to "trace the story of divine providence and human progress in one connected narrative, preserving that *organic unity* which is the chief aim of this 'History of the World.'" It is a popular work. There are no deep investigations into the laws which are supposed to underlie history, but there is much true philosophy pleasantly intermixed with the narrative. "The spirit of the work," likewise, Mr Smith says, "at least if the execution is true to the conception, will be found equally removed from narrow partisanship and affected indifference." We should be inclined to accuse him of being over cautious in the statement of some of his conclusions, and sometimes in the

conclusions themselves, but we are convinced that this caution and moderation will render the work more acceptable to all parties than it would be, if written with stronger personal bias.

Education and School. By Rev. EDWARD THRING, M.A., Head Master of Uppingham School. Cambridge and London: Macmillan and Co. 1864. Pp. xii—257.

This book, its author tells us, "deals with the theory of schools as they should be." It is based on personal experience; but, in his desire "to put out simple belief," as he rather clumsily expresses it, he has "endeavoured carefully to avoid all personality and anecdote." He desires, in this volume, "to deliver a message," because "a message plainly delivered by common lips in time of war may save an empire, if it is indeed a message." And the empire which he seeks to save is the old scholastic world, with its ancient traditions and time-honoured institutions. He sees in it some dreadful anarchy, and fearing "a breaking up of old things," he finds it "hard to stand by in silence and see our beliefs perishing without a fair trial." Mr Thring evidently thinks that, though all the world may be wrong, he is all right; and in the face of the inroads and upturnings of threatening revolution, he consoles himself with the reflection that, "whether what comes be better or worse, there may still remain no base epitaph of an old belief,"—to wit, in the volume entitled "Education and School," by the Rev. Edward Thring.

Now, we cannot tell what it is Mr Thring is so desperately afraid of. Where is "the dead body of Cæsar," over which our author thus solemnly mourns? "No base epitaph," indeed; for he boldly proclaims that he comes "to bury Cæsar, not to praise him;" but we suspect that the coffin in which he so solemnly deposits his "heart," exists only in his own excited and unruly imagination. Certainly some of "the old beliefs" are being shaken. Men, for example, are beginning to find out that something else is to be sought after in sending boys to school than merely "getting them a good connection;" but this is one of the delusions which Mr Thring himself exposes, and which he cannot, therefore, regret to see exploded. Then, Mr Thring is a strong advocate for the supremacy of the classics; but here again, we believe, most sensible men are now at one with him. The utilitarian reaction has almost spent itself. The position of the classics is now stronger than ever. The Report of the Public Schools Commissioners, and the public opinion thereby elicited, have made that point perfectly plain. "Training or cram" is another of Mr Thring's prolific texts; but we don't

know that the true relations of these two processes were ever better understood than they are at the present moment. We are all agreed that cramming is a vice, and we are all striving to defeat it, to banish it from our schools and systems of examination, and to put legitimate and thorough training in its stead. Hence, all that Mr Thring has so elaborately said on these topics is so much labour lost; for while he has said little on these subjects that intelligent men will not at once accede to, he has said nothing that is new, nothing that it is very striking, though he evidently means and expects it to be so.

On other points Mr Thring shows himself to be a conservative of the conservatives. He strongly upholds the use of what Mr D'Arcy Thomson calls the "electric instrument," and he has an unmitigated contempt for the sentimentalism, "the rose-water theories," which would hint at the efficacy of milder and more rational treatment. He thinks that "canning or flogging is an absolute necessity, for working the ordinary discipline of a school;" and he compares the idea of dispensing with it to floating through the air, instead of taking the rough and often round-about road. Well, well, *chacun à son goût*; but we are happy in the belief that the use of the "instrument," to sharpen the wits of dull or idle boys, is an old-fashioned mistake, that "the ordinary discipline of a school" can be carried on without it, and that, contrary to Mr Thring's theory, it should be reserved for serious and exceptional offences.

The system of government by monitors, and of service by fags, is another point in connection with which Mr Thring's conservatism comes out in strong relief. He urges all the old and time-worn arguments, about training to submission on the one hand, and to self-control on the other; about inculcating a "sense of justice, honour, and appreciation of truth," by which the system is defended. Yet he says that "if fagging means the cruel necessity of the younger boys doing all manner of menial offices for the elder, because there are no servants to do them, as there ought to be," . . . "no words are too strong to reprobate the practice." But this is precisely what the system leads to—what in many notable instances, some of which may be found in the Public Schools Report already referred to, it has led to. Granting, for argument's sake, all that is said regarding the good features of the system, the whole difficulty is to keep the system to these good points, to prevent its abuse. It places power, either for good or evil, in the hands of young and inexperienced boys, whose natural propensity too frequently leads them to use their power for bad ends rather than for good, for selfish ends rather than for the ends of law and justice. Bullying, we are told, must be checked by the master; but the commissioners have just found that it is quite possible in some schools "for excessive punishments to be inflicted without the knowledge of the masters." And if the legitimate authority may be abused in this way, what of the illegitimate?

As a literary performance, Mr Thring's book is far from satisfactory. It is very badly put together. The style is very faulty, very loose, very diffuse; and the constant attempts at forcible or humorous writing are painful failures. The effect of all this is, that it is often extremely difficult to know what the writer means; and as these faults are especially conspicuous in the first chapter, readers are apt to be deterred thereby from proceeding further. Take, for example, the very first page:—

"Education is the gaoler of time. Many boast of killing time, but few catch him. Running after him is *no good*; he must be met, and seized by both his ears (which the fables have forgotten to cut off), and when they are well twisted he will tell some valuable secrets. He may just as well not be caught at all, as allowed to keep his secrets. But education puts a hook in Time's ear, and makes him do *his* bidding. And whether men make Time do their bidding, or follow where he drags them, is *no slight difference*. It is the difference *between* going up hill, or tumbling down hill,"—

and so on for twenty pages, at the end of which we are in doubt whether Mr Thring's sense or his English is most out at elbows.

The Dean's English; A Criticism of the Dean of Canterbury's Essays on the Queen's English. By G. WASHINGTON MOON, Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature. Second Edition. London: Hatchard & Co. 1864.

In reply to each of the two first parts of Dean Alford's "Plea for the Queen's English," Mr Washington Moon published a pamphlet, entitled, "A Defence of the Queen's English." The Dean subsequently published a third "Plea," and has since incorporated the three articles in a volume (noticed in our June number), entitled, "The Queen's English." Mr Moon has republished his pamphlet, together with a reply to the third "Plea," in a companion volume, which, in all external, is a very close imitation of the Dean's, and is entitled, "The Dean's English." He apologises for this change of title, on the ground that his opponent had also changed that of his work, adding that his former title might have implied that his work was actually a "Defence," not of the Queen's English, but of "The Queen's English." On this ground the change was surely quite unnecessary. Apart from the consideration that no one could have suspected Mr Moon of such a gratuitous piece of chivalry, we cannot conceive of any one "in the enjoyment of common sense" falling into the error which Mr Moon professes his desire to avert. But in truth this is a fair sample of the principle which seems to regulate Mr Moon's criticisms. If there is the barest possibility of any one (the Dean would say of any *idiot*) misapprehending a sentence, or a title, that sentence, or that title, according to Mr Moon, fails in perspicuity, and must therefore be cor-

rected. This, it humbly appears to us, is a very poor standard to appeal to. It is perfectly reasonable that every one who writes the Queen's English should be subjected to fair criticism; but it is too much to ask us to write in constant dread of captious hyper-criticism. We suspect that few even of our standard writers, and still fewer of our greatest thinkers, would bear the application of this test. Mr Moon's critical canons, were they generally accepted (which, fortunately, there is no great fear of their being), would inevitably tend to foster purism in language; and verbal purists have never been, in any age or country, remarkable as a class for vigour of thought. We are old-fashioned enough to set greater store by vigorous thinking than by immaculate writing (it may be necessary to explain that we do not refer to caligraphy), and we are therefore inclined to sympathise with the Dean's common sense, rather than with Mr Moon's uncommon sharpness. The Dean's rejoinder to Mr Moon was quite fair, and quite legitimate: "We do not write for idiots." And surely Mr Moon did himself a grave injustice in supposing that this epithet was intended for himself. Not at all. Mr Moon objected to several of the Dean's sentences, that they might be misunderstood. The Dean replied that they could only be misunderstood (or could be misunderstood only) by "idiots," in which he was right. But since Mr Moon made it perfectly plain that he did not misunderstand them, the epithet could not, except by the most perverse ingenuity, be made to apply to him. It may be added, however, that in this and other similar cases, Mr Moon has very decidedly misunderstood the Dean; and if the cap fits, Mr Moon is at perfect liberty to wear it.

On other grounds, Mr Moon's change of title is an improvement. His volume is not so much a defence of the Queen's English as an attack on the Dean's. His argument is not that the Dean is wrong in theory, but that he is wrong in practice; and therefore, inferentially, that his theories must be valueless. "I wished to shew," he tells the Dean, "from your own writings, that so far from your being competent to teach others, you had need yourself to study the first principles of English composition." So much for Mr Moon's object, an object to which the title of his book now exactly corresponds. But, we may remark, in passing, we wonder Mr Moon, with all his acuteness, has not noticed that, in the very sentence which we have quoted, he lays himself open to the same kind of criticism to which he so persistently subjects the Dean, and thus drives us to the same conclusion regarding his competency as censor, as he insists upon regarding his opponent's. For the verb "teach," in this sentence, must have an object; and as the Dean is well known to teach other things besides English composition, there is obviously room for ambiguity as to what that object is. One of the interesting class of persons whom Mr Moon is so anxious to protect from all possible ambiguities

might suppose Mr Moon to argue that since the Dean needs "to study the first principles of English composition," he is therefore not "competent to teach others" patience, temperance, charity, or the doctrine of justification by faith. To have put this beyond the reach of doubt, Mr Moon ought to have said: "So far from your being competent to teach others English composition, you had need yourself to study its first principles." Now, though the sentence, on Mr Moon's own principles, is justly liable to this criticism, we are very far from believing that the objection is valid. To us, in spite of the remotely possible ambiguity, the sentence is quite intelligible as it stands; none but an idiot could misunderstand it. Most probably, Mr Moon could pick half a dozen sentences out of this notice, and argue from them, in the same way, our incompetency to criticise either him or the Dean,—we believe we should have said, either his style or the Dean's. But what we wish to shew is the entire hollowness and inconclusiveness of this mode of reasoning, and the consequent break down of Mr Moon's case. Each criticism must be judged on its own merits, and must stand or fall, not because it is the Dean's or Mr Moon's, but because it is in itself valid or invalid, right or wrong.

Though many of Mr Moon's criticisms are of this captious sort, e.g., his objection to the expression "fall, from their ignorance, into absurd mistakes," on the ground that some hypothetical "idiot" might suppose the meaning to be, not they fall because of their ignorance, but fall from a state of ignorance; we do not deny that he has sometimes reason on his side. He is right in his objection to ellipsis in the case of complex tenses. He is right as to "how the cat jumps." He is perhaps right, too, in his objection to "the one rule of *all others*," though it might be replied that "of," in such expressions, must be taken, not in a partitive sense, but simply as implying excess, and as equivalent to "above." But he has the Dean fairly on the hip, when he proves him to have misquoted (no doubt unintentionally) Num. xii. 2, before venturing "to prefer very much the words *as they stand*." The significant fact that the Dean omits this whole passage from his book, without note or comment, completes Mr Moon's triumph in this particular.

From the personal element which predominates in Mr Moon's volume, it will evidently be of less permanent interest than the Dean's. Yet it contains a good deal of racy and trenchant criticism, and to those who have a fancy for the kind of word-quibbling in which it abounds, it will afford a pleasant relief from more serious reading.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Parts IV. and V. London: Longman & Co. 1864.

We referred in our last number to Dr Latham's notes on the word *Both*. The exigencies of space

compelled us to omit the extract from the note, which was in type, as well as our remarks thereupon. We therefore give them in the present number. The first note, appended to *both*, the pronoun, as Dr Latham insists upon calling it, deals with the etymology of the word. His investigation goes considerably deeper here than the ordinary explanations of the word, which rest satisfied with telling us that it is from the A. S. *ba-twá*, and that *ba* is probably a compression of *twá*, so that *both* = *twá-twá*, that is, two taken together as cor-relatives. Dr Latham admits that the *-th* is the *t* in *two*. In analysing *bo* or *ba*, however, he thinks that the *á* (sounded like *aw* in *bawl*) is, like the *ω* in *ἄμω* and *δύω*, and the *o* in *ambo* and *duo*, a dual termination. Then the *b* is the *b* in *ambe*, and the *φ* in *ἄμφι*. But the *φ* in *ἄμφι* is an affix, corresponding with the *b* of Latin datives in *-bus*. The root is *ἄμ*. But in Anglo-Saxon he finds *ymb* = *ἄμφι*, giving the prefix *um* and *unbe* = around. Hence he concludes that the original form of the word in Anglo-Saxon was probably *ymbetwá*, "a triple compound, containing the same elements as the Italian *ambe-due*, the Slavonic *oba-dua*, and the Lithuanian *abbi-dewi*." This is more satisfactory than to treat *bo* as a compression of *two*; for it is hard to see how any amount of compression could produce such a result.

We are not so thoroughly satisfied with the logical treatment of the word; that is, as to its classification as a part of speech. There are plainly two connections in which it is used, the one along with names, the other along with verbs and adjectives. In each case there is a question to be settled: in the first, whether it is an adjective or a pronoun; in the second, whether it is an adverb or a conjunction. Dr Latham says that where it relates to two singular nouns, *both* is a pronoun, in apposition with them, as "the sun and the moon are *both* heavenly bodies;" and when the nouns are plural, the same may be admitted, as the word may be held to refer, not to two pluralities or multitudes, but to two classes. But Dr Latham does not consider the case of *both* in connection with one plural noun, as "both brothers were sailors." Here, surely, *both* attributes duality to the subject; and if it is an attribute, it cannot logically be wrong to call it an adjective. Dr Latham himself admits this attributive property of the word, when he says "it expresses the *attribute* of quantity." Now a pronoun does not imply attribution, but substitution. And if it be an attribute in the case of one noun, we do not see anything to prevent its being an attribute in the case of two, as, for example, in the sentence, "And the next day, *both* morning and afternoon, he was kept by our party."

On the second question, whether in connection with words which are themselves attributes, verbs and adjectives, *both* is an adverb or a conjunction, we quote Dr Latham's elaborate note:—

"THE ADVERB, BOTH.

"In being used, not only as a pronoun, but as some other part of speech, *both* agrees with three other words, all of which (like *both* itself) convey the notion of a natural dual. These three words are *either*, *whether*, and *neither*.

"In this lies the excuse for the length of the forthcoming remarks, remarks which go beyond the particular word under notice, and which, saving criticism elsewhere, explain the nature of the others.

"The class to which these words belong, as Parts of Speech, is by no means universally admitted. That they are something else as well as pronouns is beyond doubt. It has been doubted, however, whether they are adverbs or conjunctions. The natural duality of their import is at the bottom of this uncertainty.

"Whenever any one of the words under notice occurs, there are two terms in either the clause which precedes or the clause which follows it, i. e. in either the subject or the predicate of the proposition.

"Now two terms in the same part of a proposition, provided they are connected by a true conjunction, give, with few and unimportant exceptions, two propositions, and wherever there are two propositions, the word that connects them is either a relative pronoun or a conjunction; as,

The man is coming to-day
who

Was here yesterday;

or—

The day is warm
because

The sun shines;

where *because* is a conjunction rather than an *advb.*

"In sentences like

The sun and moon shine,

or—

The sun shines and warms us,
the principle is the same, though the details are different. Though there is but a single sentence, there are, in reality, two propositions, i. e.

The sun shines,
and

The moon shines,

or—

The sun shines,
and

The sun warms us.

"The compendium by which these are thrown into the ordinary form of an apparently single proposition is easily analysed.

"Whenever we use *both* we use *and*; and whenever we use *either* or *whether* we use *or* after it. After *neither* we use *nor*, which is merely *or* with a negative element prefixed. *And* is what is called a copulative, or what is called a disjunctive conjunction, each being a conjunction of the most decided character. Are not, then, *both*, *either*, *whether*, and *neither*, as Parts of Speech, in the same category? The Latin Language favours this view. There (where '*both* hope and reason,' and '*either* Cæsar or nothing,' are rendered by '*et spes et ratio*,' and '*aut Cæsar aut nullus*') the original word is repeated, implying that the place of *both* and *either* may be legitimately filled by a conjunction.

"For all this *both* and *either* are *adverbs*; and so in the Latin (notwithstanding the identity of form), as

translated in the only way possible for an Englishman to translate them, are *et* and *and*.

"*And* and *or* may be used without *both* and *either*. *Either*, *whether*, and *both*, however, cannot be used without *or* and *and*. Hence it is clear that it is not these words which convey either the copula denoted by *and*, or the disjunction denoted by *or*. They are superadditions by which the copula or disjunction is strengthened or defined, but they are not the copulative nor the disjunctive itself. They convey the *modes* of the union or the disjunction; and doing this are adverbs rather than true conjunctions.

"We might, if we chose, call them conjunctival adverbs; but, as they form but a small class, it is scarcely worth while introducing a new term.

"The class, indeed, is in reality smaller than it appears to be, inasmuch as *either*, *whether*, and *neither* may be considered as one and the same word, used, with a slight modification, affirmatively, interrogatively, or negatively. Hence the only adverbs under notice are complements, or supplements, to *and* and *both*; the strengtheners or definers of the copula and the disjunctive. Yet even here there is a difference.

"*Either*, ending in *-er*, belongs to a large class, a class containing comparative degrees like *wiser*, and adverbs of place like *upper* and *under*, along with other words of a less definite character. The notion at the bottom of these forms, as it has reasonably been argued by Bopp, and others after him, is that of *one in two*; as conveyed in expressions like 'this is better than that,' 'the upper and under sides.'

"In *either*, *whether*, and *neither*, the dual element is evident. In expressions like 'either go or stay,' 'whether you will or not,' and 'neither this nor that,' the notion is that of an *alternative*. The dual element here is clear enough. There are two objects or acts under consideration. But as these are separated, and as a choice by which one is taken and one left is made, there are unity and duality combined. There are two things to choose from, only one to choose.

"In *both* the case is different. The objects or acts are two; but there is no choice, no separation, no disjunction. There is, doubtless, a notion of unity, inasmuch as the two are treated as one, but this is a unity effected by comprehension, and not one resulting from separation.

"Hence the words, though to a great extent words of the same import, are formed upon different principles and terminate differently.

"For further details concerning the import of these words see *Either*, *Whether*, *Each*, and *Any*, the latter word more especially, to explain such exceptionable phrases as *on either side* = on each side = on both sides. The explanation of this lies in the fact of the notion of an alternative always being combined with the notion of indifference. As it is a matter of indifference which of two alternatives is taken, *both* are liable to be chosen. Hence, *either* may = *both*. But it does this indirectly and by implication; whereas *both* is direct, positive, and explicit.

"When the word is a pronoun, and when it is an adverb, is often a matter of doubt. In such a sentence as 'you and I are both cold and wet,' nothing but a knowledge of the external circumstances can tell us to what *both* applies. If we heard the words *spoken*, the em-

phasis would help us; but in writing the import is ambiguous, the distribution (so to say) of the word *both* being equivocal. The rule that it is to be taken with the word which immediately precedes is wholly inadequate.

"As far as it goes the following rules are absolute; but it will not go far.

"1. Where there are two nouns, each in the singular number, and but one verb, *both* is a pronoun, and is in apposition with them. 'The sun and moon are both heavenly bodies;' 'he and I are both going abroad,' &c.

"2. Where there are two verbs, and only one noun, that noun being singular, *both* is an adverb, and may be periphrastically rendered by *in the way of a pair*, *brace*, *couple*, or *two objects taken together*. 'The sun both shines and warms;' 'he is both cold and hungry,' &c.

"The principle of this is clear; and it is, evidently, comprehensive enough to make the foregoing rules unexceptionable. A word like *both* cannot apply to either a noun or a verb in the singular number."—Pp. 267-8.

A French Eton; or Middle Class Education and the State. By MATTHEW ARNOLD. London and Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

We discussed the subject opened up by Mr Arnold in this delightful volume so fully in our April number, that we will not be expected to revert to it now. We then, while substantially agreeing with Mr Arnold in the position he takes up, that it is the right and duty of the State to interfere in the matter of middle-class education, and that such interference is now so imperatively called for, that it should no longer be delayed,—we say we then, nevertheless, objected that Mr Arnold had erred in condemning all private schools, in admitting no exceptions, and in thus depriving himself of the support of the good private schools in his crusade against the bad ones. He directs our attention to the fact that he did acknowledge the exceptions, in the words, "*some of them good*, many of them middling, most of them bad; but none of them great institutions, none of them vested with much consideration or dignity." It is but just to Mr Arnold that we should quote his rejoinder:—

"A friendly critic in the *Museum*, complains that my censure of private schools is too sweeping, that I set them all down, all without exception, as utterly bad;—he will allow me to point to these words as my answer. No doubt there are some masters of cheap private schools who are doing honest and excellent work; but no one suffers more than such men themselves do, from a state of things in which, from the badness of the majority of these schools, a discredit is cast over them all, bad and good alike: no one would gain more by obtaining a public trustworthy discrimination of bad from good, an authentic recognition of merit. The teachers of these schools would then have, in their profession, a career; at present they have none."—(P. 68, *note*.)

We readily admit that we overlooked the words to

which Mr Arnold refers. We must have read them in *Macmillan*, when the articles composing this volume first appeared. But we suspect our omission to take them into account was due to the fact that they came in as a very brief and incidental exception, in the midst of a full and elaborate condemnation. As such, they must obviously make a very slight impression, in comparison with the effect of his sweeping censures. We are glad, however, that our reference to the subject has led Mr Arnold to make the more explicit acknowledgment of the point we insisted on, which the above note contains; and to recognise the importance of making plain to the latter class of private schoolmasters that his cause is really theirs. Our object has, in fact, been gained.

Of the literary merits of the book, we cannot speak too highly. It is refreshing to find what are generally considered dry educational topics handled with so much vigour, freshness, and literary power, as we have lately seen them, by such men as D'Arcy Thompson and Matthew Arnold. The immediate effect of this is to enlist the sympathy of a much wider range of readers than such questions usually interest. This is one of the main objects which Mr Arnold has in view. He writes, not for professional men, but for the middle classes themselves. And though they may not be flattered when he tells them such truths as that, though they may know good better from bad, they do not so well know the good from the bad in education, it will be strange indeed if they are not stirred up by such an appeal as this, to take a more direct and lively interest in a subject so intimately connected with their prosperity and progress.

NELSON'S SCHOOL SERIES—New No. IV. Reading Book. Illustrated. London: T. Nelson & Sons. 1864.

This is out of sight the best elementary Reading Book that we have seen. Whether we regard the matter or the style of the lessons, or the admirable illustrations by which the lessons are accompanied, it strikes us as being thoroughly adapted to the tastes of children, and to the wants of teachers. It is compiled on the principle that in order to make children read well, they must be induced to read much; and that the only way by which they can be induced to read much is, "by giving them subjects to read about in which they will naturally feel interested, and by so treating these subjects as to render them attractive." Every practical teacher knows that when children begin to read, their intelligence is generally a-head of their power of reading. With practice, however, the mechanical difficulty of reading gradually disappears, and then the power of reading greatly exceeds their power of understanding what is read. Hence the mistake of giving children in the latter

stage passages from standard authors to read, in which, though the words are quite within their grasp, the thought is far beyond them. There is no such error in the present book. The difficulty has been very successfully overcome, by having many of the lessons specially prepared for the book, and by securing that in these the language and the matter should be adapted to each other, and to the capacity of the children for whom it is intended. Of these original lessons, those on Tea, Sugar, and Cotton are particularly successful and praiseworthy. Those on Cotton especially are perfect models of what lessons for children should be. The illustrations, which have been specially designed for the lessons which they accompany, are admirable as works of art, and as teaching immediately through the eye what the narrative teaches through the understanding. The introduction of proverbs and short anecdotes is an excellent idea; and the elliptical form of them is a happy expedient for keeping up the attention and quickening youthful ingenuity. The book is sure to be a favourite with the children; and teachers know that when this is accomplished more than half the battle is gained.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

The "Standard" Manual of Arithmetic. Edited by J. S. LAURIE. London: Murby.

This is evidently the work of an experienced teacher, who knows both what to give and what to withhold. Bare mechanical rules are as much as possible avoided; and their places supplied by a simple explanation of the principle involved. Where this is not compatible with conciseness, hints are given to the teacher as to how he should deal with the subject. The arrangement is good; the examples are numerous, varied, short, and interesting. A few inaccuracies, typographical and other, appear throughout the book, and in Part VII. one chapter, at least, is "conspicuous by its absence;" but, on the whole, for young classes, it is the best manual of elementary arithmetic that we have seen.

School Class-Book of Arithmetic. Part I. By BARNARD SMITH. Cambridge and London: Macmillan & Co.

This little book has a very prepossessing appearance. It is moderate in price; and, in its theory and examples superior to the ordinary run of school-books. The only peculiarity is the introduction of the French Metrical Tables, and sets of exercises on the metric system—"innovations" which will add little to the popularity of so elementary a text-book.

First Book of Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War. With Notes and Vocabulary. By Dr KENNY, L.R.C.P. London: Longmans. 1864.

A useful little pamphlet, well adapted for beginners. Its peculiar feature is the insertion for

an English "Argument" at the head of each chapter. The Notes are serviceable, though the free translation of phrases is apt to mislead a beginner as to the meaning of single words, for example, "*valeat plurimum*," has great influence."

Questions upon Scripture History. By JAMES BEAVER, D.D. Fourth Edition, Revised and Improved. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

The objections that may fairly be made to school-books in the form of question and answer do not apply to books like the present, which consist of questions only, and which compel the pupil to read and reflect in order to discover the answers for himself. Dr Beaver's Questions are exhaustive and suggestive. They require the systematic reading of the Scriptures, and the reading in connection with them will be all the more careful that it is pursued with reference to a definite object. There is an excellent introduction, giving an account of

the books of the Bible, and of the connection between the Old Testament and the New.

Noble Dames of Ancient Story. By J. G. EDGAR. London: Hogg.

Not properly a school-book, yet in some sense an educational book. The volume will be acceptable as a school prize, though the illustrations are extravagant and theatrical, rather than natural or artistic.

A Treatise on Mental Arithmetic, in Theory and Practice. By the Rev. ISAIAH STEEN. Fourth Edition. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.

We do not now make the acquaintance of this little book for the first time. We are glad to find that its undoubted merits are so highly appreciated that a fourth edition has been called for. When we consider how much of our every-day arithmetic must be mental, the importance of this branch of instruction will be evident. Teachers could not have a better manual than that before us.



Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

3. **LATIN CASES.**—The first grammatical terms are due to the critics of Alexandria and Pergamus. The names of the cases, as they presently stand, appear in the *Greek Grammar* of Dionysius Thrax (B.C. 60), written for the benefit of Roman students of the Greek language. They are used by Quintilian in the first, and by Priscian in the sixth century of the Empire. The present names are also employed by the grammarian Varro, the contemporary of Cicero.

The Stoics employed the word *πρὸς* to denote the *falling* of one word upon another, with which it is grammatically connected. This is translated by *casus* in Latin, and by *case* or *declension* in English. The Nominative was called *casus rectus*—a misnomer in words not allowed by the Stoics. The Genitive (*productive*), corresponding to ἡ γέννησις *πρὸς*, denotes the genus or kind. Thus, in the phrase "a bird of the sea," the words "of the sea" denote the genus. And so in many modern languages. The term *Abblative* is said to have been taken from a work on Grammar by Julius Cæsar, dedicated to Cicero.

QUENTIN.

18. Your correspondent has misquoted the first question. The definite article should have been in-

serted before the word "compound," otherwise the interrogative and the compound adverbs are identical.

"What" is the neuter of "who," and when used interrogatively it is a *substantive*, as in the instances quoted, or an *adjective* when followed by a noun. Supplying the ellipse, according to Dr Morell's rule, the first sentence stands thus—"Tell me what (thing) are you doing!" "What," then, cannot be an adverb.

Question II. is similar, but "W." should not select adverbs from sentences where there may be none.

QUENTIN.

19.

(a.) "The crime is one." Principal sent.

Subj. Real noun.

Pred. Verb "to be," and an adjective, enlarged by an adj. clause.

(b.) "Of which he has been found guilty." Subordinate adj. clause enlarging (a.)

Subj. Pers. pron.

Pred. Comp. verb, extended by an adv. adjunct of manner.

Ind. Obj. Rel. Pron.

(c.) "I never believed." Simple sent. used parenthetically.

- Subj. Pers. pron.
 Pred. Simp. verb, ext. by one adv. adjunct of time.
 (d.) "That *he could have committed which.*"
 forming object. of (c.) Subor. noun.
 clause to (c.) Adj. clause to (a.)
 Subj. Pers. pron.
 Pred. Comp. verb.
 Obj. Rel. pron. "ESSAY."

20. This appears to be one of the instances in which the *relative* is used for the *personal* pronoun. So Milton, *Paradise Lost*, Bk. I. v. 81. &c. The words, "*which* when rent," are equivalent to the nominative absolute "*and it* being rent," or to the sentence, "*and when it is rent;*" but it appears to me that, in the expressive language of the poet, there is a directness of meaning and vividness of picture which might be lost with any other construction.

I do not see that a "defence" is necessary, or that a "solecism" is committed in the adoption of this classic usage.

QUENTIN.

QUERIES.

21. In most English grammars *my, thy, &c.* are called possessive pronouns, *mine, thine, &c.* are called possessive cases of the personal pronouns. Is the distinction proper, or on what ground is it maintained?

MAGISTER.

22. Some one has proposed to change the punctuation of the second line of Macbeth's famous soliloquy, and to read:—

"If it were done when 'tis done, then 'twere well,

It were done quickly if the assassination

Could trammel up the consequence," &c.

Can any of your readers inform me who is the

author of the emendation? I should like, also, to see the merits of the new reading fairly discussed.

T. C. D.

23. Analyse the following passage from Byron's "Waterloo":—

"How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills,
 Savage and shrill! but, with the breath which fills
 Their mountain-pipe, so fills the mountaineers
 With the fierce native daring which instils
 The stirring memory of a thousand years."

I ask this with special reference to the clause beginning "so fills."

CLAVIS.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

[Solutions of 8, 9, 10, by *Quadrice*, have been received, but too late for insertion or acknowledgment in last Number.]

QUERIES.

14. *Proposed by Scalar.*—Let a, b, c, d, e , be five consecutive co-efficients of the Binomial Theorem, then

$$(a-e)(bd-2c^2) + b^2(c+2d) - d^2(c+2b) = ed(a-c) + bc(c-e).$$

15. *Proposed by H. Parade.*—Find the locus of vertex of a triangle whose sides are m and n ; and the quadrature of the area described by the centre of gravity.

16. *Solution requested by A. M.*—A person wishing to determine the length of a wall on the opposite bank of a river, places himself due south of one end, and then due west of the other, at such distances that the angle which the wall subtends at each position is (a) . If (a) be the distance between the stations, find the length of the wall.



Open Council.

[No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

QUESTION PROPOSED.—OUGHT THE STATE TO CONTRIBUTE ANY PORTION OF THE PUBLIC FUNDS TO THE SUPPORT OF MIDDLE-CLASS SCHOOLS?

H.—If asked whether in the abstract it is the duty of the State to supervise and support the education of the middle classes, I should unhesitatingly say *yes*; but if by "supervision" is signified universal inspection, and by "support" pecuniary aid, then with equal decision I say, let us have neither.

In speaking of middle class schools, I except the great and small public schools, for I hold that these

ought to be under the control of the Government. Whenever money is left for the benefit of education, the State has a right to see to the proper administration of the funds. For as our laws provide for the due carrying out of every obscure individual's "last will and testament," it is obvious that the executive power must possess authority to supervise the application of all moneys left by will for the public

benefit—in other words, the State can and ought to regulate all charitable bequests to schools,—and hence should maintain supervision over all such institutions, whether called *public* or *grammar* schools. My objections, then, have respect to government interference in the establishment and endowing of new schools, or the *compulsory* inspection of those now existing. My reasons are based, 1st, upon free trade principles, which are of more universal application for the general good than some people yet believe. 2d, Upon the assertion that more effectual remedies than those at present proposed can be found for existing evils. 3d, Upon the enormous cost to the country, if anything approaching a complete State control is to be maintained over middle-class education.

SIGMA.—I answer the question in the affirmative, and for the following amongst other reasons:—

1. I admit that, wherever it is possible, institutions (for whatever purpose established) should be left to the operation of free-trade, should be regulated by the principle of supply and demand. But I deny that there are no exceptions to this rule; and I maintain that whenever this principle proves inadequate, in connection with institutions which are important or essential to the prosperity of the country, it is not only the right but the duty of the country, as represented by the State, to step in and endeavour to do itself justice. I further maintain that, in connection with the middle class education of England, the principle of supply and demand has signally failed. Schools do not exist in sufficient numbers to supply the wants of this important class of the community; and a vast number of those that do exist are notoriously inefficient. The circum-

stances have therefore arisen here in which the State is called upon to interfere.

2. The State should interfere, because no other party has the power to interfere with proper effect. The universities may examine and inspect, but they have not the means of support. The Church may support, but it is not qualified to inspect; and even if it were, I do not think the interference of the Church at all desirable. The Church is itself supported by the State, and if we are to have State support, it should be direct, not indirect. Moreover, the Church has already too much educational power. I wish to see, and every educationist should wish to see, education independent of clerical control.

3. The middle classes have a distinct *right* to the consideration and support of the State in the matter of education. Considering the importance of the class, considering the amount of their contributions to the coffers of the State, they have even a better right to receive State aid than the poorer classes. Yet the poorer classes receive thousands annually for the education of their children. The middle classes receive nothing.

4. I cannot perceive anything degrading in the middle classes receiving State aid for this purpose. They receive it for other purposes without considering it eleemosynary. In fact the State is only the community (including the middle classes) acting collectively. In receiving State aid, therefore, they would only be helping themselves. If they submit to be governed through the State, to be protected through the State, to be preached to through the State, why should they decline also to be taught through the State? On the other hand, if each man is to pay his own schoolmaster, why should he not also insist upon paying his own policeman, his own soldier, his own clergyman, his own judge.



Education at Home.

I. EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS BILL.—*June 23.* This Bill, intitled, An Act for annexing Conditions to the Appointment of Persons in the Governing Bodies of certain Public Schools and Colleges, was brought from the Lords on the 17th June, and on July 11th finally passed the House of Commons.

GRANTS TO ENDOWED SCHOOLS.—*July 1.* Sir J. Pakington had a motion on the paper, "That the distinctions made between endowed schools in the country and in towns, with respect to education grants, are unsatisfactory and unjust." The Speaker said the resolution was not only the same in substance but very nearly the same in form and terms as one

already negatived, and that it could not be put to the House. Sir J. Pakington bowed to the decision, but refused to admit that the question was settled. In the next session he meant to revive the discussion, and to induce the House to reverse its judgment; the former decision being a very narrow one, the majority only eight, and taken unexpectedly.

THE EDUCATION ESTIMATES.—As is generally the case when a party crisis is impending, a calm comes before the storm, and the debates wanted the fire, animation, and energy usual when the educational estimates are under discussion. Members all appeared willing to delay battle on this occasion till next session. The members in the House sank more

Vice-President (Mr Bruce) moved a vote of £705,404 for the year as against £804,000 last year. The reduction arose under "Building Grants" and "Annual Grants." The whole number of children examined under the New Code, 78,000, were over ten years of age. Only 1700 passed the standard they ought to pass at this age. No stronger argument was needed to shew the necessity of the new Code. The Privy Council had not limited inspection to reading, writing, and arithmetic, but had directed the inspectors to pay great attention to other requirements. Lord Robert Cecil believed that the unwillingness to go on with the educational work of the country had resulted from distrust created in the minds of school-managers by the treatment they had received; they felt there was no sympathy for them at Whitehall. He complained that supplementary rules were issued always when the House was prorogued and not in the spring. As to evening schools, the department had actually required the scholars to appear in the daytime to be examined. Then there had been an unhappy difference with the National Society, a persistent effort on the part of the Education office to get rid of a distinct, clear, sharply-defined form of religious teaching. Mr Walter thought the constitution of the education grant unsatisfactory. He gave notice that he should go fully into the subject in moving for a committee to investigate the whole matter next session. He contended that a good inspector could tell in half-an-hour what was the character of the school he inspected, and whether entitled to a grant. The master's certificate could also be made to depend better on the inspection than on the examination of the Privy Council. Then as to pupil teachers, their intellectual status was low; they were unable to make the commonest and most simple statement in intelligible terms. Out of 542 teachers to whom Mr Brodie, an inspector, referred, 214 had been disabled by sickness, and many had died; female pupil-teachers especially left with shattered constitutions. According to the inspectors themselves, the examination did not draw the children out and ascertain their intellectual development like the old mode. Mr Adderley was determined not to rest till he had gained the attention of the House on the subject of the Endowment Minute. The forms of the House prevented him bringing the matter forward again this year, although he believed it was mere accident by which he was defeated. He objected to the "Supplemental Clauses," to "Instructions" and "Circulars," which were not interpretations but alterations of the law. Mr Hadfield said that the apathy on this subject was owing to the deadening effect which money granted by the State always produced. It would be more satisfactory if the State would leave education alone. During an hour the benches opposite had been occupied by only three members, although the vote involved £1,300,000. Sir Stafford Northcote advocated the cause of the school managers, who had been treated with unnecessary severity while doing a great

service to the country. He illustrated how the managers and masters were situated under what was called the first charge, which professed to give the master a certain amount of pay, founded upon the correspondence which he moved for and obtained relative to St Ives school, at Liskeard. After much correspondence the matter ultimately ended in the managers having to pay the deficiency. The grant to that school upon inspection and examination amounted to £31, 8s. The school and its master had satisfied the requirements of the Revised Code, and the claim of the master was £21, 10s., which the managers considered was the first claim, and they paid him. There was then the pupil-teacher to be paid, but there was not sufficient by 12 guineas, his stipend amounting to £17, 10s. Application was made to the Privy Council for the balance, but they refused to pay it. That, he feared, was one case out of a large number of a similar character. Sir J. Pakington heard with much satisfaction the notice for a committee of inquiry next session. He thought the fault of the present system was its excessive centralisation. The framework of local assistance already existed in the diocesan boards, and might be used in the same way as we employ local assistance for many other purposes. He regretted that the National Society would not relax its rules to meet the purposes of the education department. Sir G. Bowyer felt convinced that a denominational system was the only one that could work effectually. The national system in Ireland grew more denominational every year, and worked better in proportion. Mr Lowe would answer for his own misdeeds. It was the will of this country to have a denominational system. He contended that the department had not exceeded their authority in the supplementary rules. Unless a man was prepared to brave obloquy, he had better at once give up a position he could not fill with honour to himself and advantage to the community. The vote was then agreed to.

THE ACT OF UNIFORMITY AMENDMENT BILL.—July 13. Similar in spirit to the Tests Abolition Bill, it stood but a poor chance of passing, after the fate that befell the last. The object of the bill was to assimilate the universities in the declarations required from those who sought degrees and fellowships, and to abrogate the law that required, in some form or other, admission of membership of the Church of England. It was avowedly a bill to open the universities to Dissenters. By so doing, it is argued that experience proves concessions to be the best means of disarming enmity and resentment, and of making friends of those now estranged from the church, while it would strengthen the universities, by the learning of many now too scrupulous, to sign declarations against their consciences. The legislature has decided, however, by a large majority, that the day has not yet arrived for the concession.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—The appeal in the case of All Souls' College, has been heard by the Archbishop of Canterbury, at Lambeth Palace. Mr Maule argued the case on the part of the Warder and Fellows. The Archbishop deferred his decision, many important points being involved.

LONDON.—The Matriculation Examination of the London Universities took place, June 27, at Burlington House. Provincial examinations took place at the same time at St Cuthbert's College, Ushaw, Stonyhurst College, Owen's College, Manchester, Queen's College, Liverpool, and Town Hall, Leeds.

EDINBURGH.—A meeting of the General Committee of the Association for the better endowment of the University of Edinburgh was held on the 14th ult. The Secretary reported that subscriptions and donations had been received to the amount of £700, and they had received two subscriptions, one of £100 and another of 10 guineas. After a long discussion on the subject of founding one or more fellowships in the University, it was agreed that it would be inexpedient to commence the scheme with fewer than two fellowships, each to be held for three years, and the annual value of each not to amount to less than £100.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

WELLINGTON COLLEGE.—Her Majesty the Queen has, on the occasion of the Speech-day this year, presented to the boys' library a valuable selection of books, amounting to nearly 200 volumes.

FREE CHURCH EDUCATION SCHEME.—The Education Committee of the Free Church have agreed to appoint a paid agent to work up their Education Scheme, particularly "to take charge of the congregational associations, so as, by correspondence and visitation, to plant them where they are still wanting, and to foster them where they exist."

NORMAL COLLEGES IN SCOTLAND.—The training schools have now all received the announcement of their incomes for the year, under the Minute 21st March 1863. To all of them the Government grant this year is much smaller than for some time back. Provision has been made for this by a sweeping reduction in the number of students, viz, 769 to 448. But some of them will find it extremely difficult to tide over 1864, from what appears to us a grossly unjust clause in the minute of 21st March. That minute enacted, that the grants should never in any case exceed those of 1862. But this decision was arrived at only after a larger number of students, necessitating of course increased payments, had been sanctioned for 1863. The result was that the

training school authorities had either to dismiss the excess of students, or submit to have their grant for 1864 reduced by the excess of 1863 above 1862. In the two Free Church Colleges this amounts to £1128. In all the training schools it is found necessary to make reductions in staff. In the Free Church one in Edinburgh, the staff has been entirely remodelled, and in the Established School in Edinburgh, and the Free Church one in Glasgow, vacancies occurring at the present time are not to be filled up.

SCOTTISH EDUCATION COMMISSION.—The Committee of the Parochial Schoolmasters have determined to take steps to endeavour to secure the appointment of Dr Knox, St Ninians, as one of the Education Commissioners. A meeting of teachers held in Dundee also agreed to use every effort to get the names of Dr Knox, and Dr Gloag, Edinburgh, put on the Commission. The meeting also proposed to take means to secure that a fair proportion of teachers should be examined before the Commission.

RESULT OF THE REVISED CODE.—At the examination of Dr Andrew Thomson's School, Queensferry Street, on the 14th ult, Dr Candlish said, "The sole reason why we are at present unconnected with the Government is, because we found it absolutely impossible to work the Revised Code."

RETIREMENT OF DR GLOAG.—Dr Gloag, who has been forty years mathematical master in the Edinburgh Academy, was entertained to dinner on the 14th ult., on the occasion of his retirement from that post. The chair was occupied by J. M. Balfour, Esq. of Pilrig, and the number present was about a hundred, composed principally of old pupils of the academy. In proposing the toast of "The Universities," one of the speakers stated that there were no fewer than eight chairs in Scotland occupied by men who had been under the training of Dr Gloag—two in St Andrews, two in Glasgow, and four in Edinburgh.

THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL AND THE REPORTS OF INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.—The report of the committee appointed to inquire into the practice of the Committee of Council on Education with respect to the reports of Her Majesty's inspectors of schools was made public on the 15th July. The committee find that no instance of marking the reports has occurred since February 14, 1862, when a report by Mr Longueville Jones was specially submitted to the president, with passages marked, written with a feeling of hostility to the department, and that report was sent back to him with remarks by the president. The committee, however, could not proceed with the investigation, owing to the illness of Mr Jones. The committee say:—"The principle involved in the subject of this inquiry,

and in the resolution, is important. Your committee have carefully considered the action of the department, and have come to the conclusion that the supervision exercised in objecting to the insertion of irrelevant matter, of mere dissertation, and of controversial argument, is consistent with the powers of the Committee of Council, and has, on the whole, been exercised fairly and without excessive strictness. If passages occur in the reports as printed, consisting of inference or arguments which may tend to support the educational views of the department, other passages may be found which have a contrary tendency. No objection is made to statements of facts observed by the inspectors within the circle of their official experience, whatever may be their bearing on the policy of the Committee of Council. The knowledge, or even a reasonable suspicion, that the inspectors' reports are subject to alteration, either directly or indirectly, at the instance of the department, has, without doubt, a tendency to lower their value, if they are to be regarded as independent sources of testimony in matters of opinion or controversy touching the educational views or policy of the Committee of Council. It appears, however, to your committee, that whatever may have been the understanding under which the appointment of inspectors was originally sanctioned, Parliament cannot be presumed to be ignorant (since the year 1858 at latest), that the heads of the office have exercised a censorship over the inspectors' reports as to the insertion of argumentative or irrelevant matter; and your committee are of opinion that some such power is essential to the effectual working of the department so long as it retains its present constitution and functions. It has occurred to your committee that it might be possible to obtain all the information which the inspectors can be desired to give to the department or to Parliament, by requiring them to furnish answers to specific questions, instead of making general reports, and thus to avoid risk of misunderstanding,

either between the department and inspectors or between the department and Parliament, as to the kind of information which the inspectors are required to give. It appears, however, that none of the reports for the last year have been objected to on the ground of nonconformity with the Minute of 1861, as explained by the paragraph of August 1863. For the information of Parliament your committee recommend that all instructions which may hereafter from time to time be issued to the inspectors, either as to their general or tabulated reports, should be laid before Parliament with the annual report of the Committee of Council."

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

Rev. J. Cromwell, M.A., University College, Oxford, late Principal of the Training College, Durham, has succeeded the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, now Vicar of Hanwell, as Principal of St Mark's Training College, Chelsea.

Dr Ernest Adams, University College School, London, has succeeded A. O. Ferris, Esq., in Victoria Park School, Manchester.

The Queen has appointed the Dean of Windsor to succeed Dr Cureton as Crown trustee of the British Museum.

John St Clair, Esq., Lecturer, Church of Scotland Training College, Edinburgh, has been appointed to the Head Mastership of the Ewart Institute, Newton-Stewart.

Henry Evelyn Oakley, Esq., of Jesus College, Cambridge, M.A., has been appointed one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

The Rev. R. M. Chamney, of Walton, Herts, has been appointed Principal of Cheltenham Training College, vacant by the elevation of the Rev. C. H. Bromley to the Bishopric of Tasmania.

The Rev. C. P. Marriott, M.A., late Scholar of Corpus Christi, Cambridge, has been appointed to a Mastership in Richmond School, Yorkshire.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—M. Renan having declined the post offered him, on the 1st of June, in the Imperial Library, his nomination to it was cancelled, and his removal from the Hebrew Chair in the College of France confirmed on the 11th of the same month. It seems to be admitted on all hands that, in the first and only lecture which M. Renan delivered from the above chair, he transgressed the instructions which accompanied his appointment to it on the 11th January 1862. From these instructions the following is an important extract:—"The pro-

fessor, like all the citizens, is bound to observe the caution and respect which are due to the sacred character of the Bible; he will leave to the theologian his proper field, confining his own inquiries to literary and philological subjects; keeping aloof from religious discussions, he will devote himself entirely to researches that may promote enlightenment, and a science so important as the comparative study of the Semitic languages."

The heads of the Imperial Lyceums are henceforth to enjoy a little more freedom in the selection of

prize books. Whilst the Government list of prize books is still to be kept in view, should any book, not in the list, be preferred, its substitution is allowed, provided always the proper authority be communicated with, and its sanction obtained.

The *Courrier des Ardennes* reports the continued prosperity of classes for adults in the north-eastern provinces, adding that the classes best attended are those of drawing, arithmetic, hygiene, singing, and French. The Minister of Public Instruction, in congratulating the promoters of these classes on their success, thus defines their place:—"After the elementary school there is nothing for our whole working population, and from twelve to twenty years of age most of them forget the little they have learned. Something must be placed along their route; for the less ignorance the more morality, and the more knowledge the more wealth even."

The following is a *vidimus* of the Government schools in Algeria:—

- 8 Boys' elementary schools, taught by laymen.
- 4 Boys' elementary schools, taught by friars.
- 1 Protestant boys' elementary school.
- 1 Protestant girls' elementary school.
- 1 Girls' elementary school, taught by a lay female teacher.
- 5 Girls' elementary schools, taught by nuns.
- 2 Jewish boys' elementary schools.
- 1 Jewish girls' elementary school.
- 8 Infant schools superintended by nuns.
- 1 Jewish infant school.

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In some of these schools there are evening classes for adults, which are well attended both by work-people and by soldiers.

According to statistics obtained by a special inquiry in 1860, there were then in Paris of workmen able to read and write, 844,600; to read only, 5,000; to neither read nor write, 47,600. At this rate one-eighth of the total number could neither read nor write; and of this eighth by far the greater part belonged to the building and clothing trades.

ITALY.—A girls' school in the Monte Calvario quarter of Naples has been the scene of insurrection. A favourite female teacher having been removed, the scholars, for the most part from six to ten years

of age, greeted her successor with such cries and gestures that she bolted out, whereupon the girls, crowding to the windows, called on the street-boys to hasten her flight by hooting and yelling, which of course was done. When a policeman at length entered the school, the girls appointed a deputation from among themselves to wait on the authorities for the purpose of obtaining the restoration of their favourite teacher.

A normal school for elementary teachers, male and female, having been lately established at Messina, every parish in the province was invited to send a girl for training. The following was in one instance the answer of the parochial board:—"The people of Mongiuffi-Melia don't see the good of giving instruction to women, especially as women cannot be dispensed with in the management of cattle and children. Instruction is a luxury allowable only in the large towns, but which poor parishes should do without. Even if Government sent us a female teacher, the poor woman would inevitably starve. At all events, the parish cannot undertake the expense of training a female teacher. Accordingly the parochial board, being unanimously of opinion that the parish does not need a female teacher, declines the proposal which has been made to it."

PRUSSIA.—All the upper commercial schools (*realschulen*) of Prussia have now the same complement of classes as the classical schools (*gymnasien*), namely, eight; and pupils who take the full course remain in both to the age of eighteen.

RUSSIA.—Moscow is at present the centre of an enthusiastic movement for the establishment of public libraries, and galleries of painting and sculpture. The rich are vying with each other in the contribution of books and works of art from their private collections, as well as of money, and in some places they have even given up their houses for the temporary accommodation of the articles contributed.

On the 20th November 1863, the six universities of Russia counted nearly 5000 students, distributed as follows:—St Petersburg, 672; Moscow, 1892; Vladimir, 647; Kasan, 418; Charkov, 703; Dorpat, 568.

Proceedings of Societies.

Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.—The half-yearly general meeting was held on July 6, the Rev. W. T. Jones, M.A., F. C. P., in the chair. The Dean's

Report stated that the recent examinations had been conducted with the utmost possible regularity and impartiality. The numbers who came up for the

pupils' examination, both in London and in country schools, had greatly increased. Besides the regular examinations by written papers, the College had been called upon to test a larger number of schools by oral examination. 2. *College Report*.—At the Teachers' examination, seven ladies and nine gentlemen presented themselves for examination in various subjects. Of these, seven ladies and five gentlemen had passed. The Report of the Council remarked upon the steady progress which the Institution had made during the last six months in all departments. The number of candidates at the recent examination had been larger by upwards of 100 than at any previous examination, and 220 more than presented themselves at the corresponding examination last year. The Council suggested that private schools should not manifest unwillingness to submit to inquiry, should a Royal Commission on middle-class schools be appointed. They thought that its results would help forward the scholastic registration movement.

SCHOOLMASTERS' SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.—The following is an abstract of Mr Ellis's lecture, which we were compelled to postpone from last number :—

EDUCATION.

The lecturer said, we are all engaged in, or take an active-interest in, the work of education. Our lessons, however, have shewn us that this is only a part, and a very small part of the great work in which the whole community is engaged. The importance of our part in this common work arises from the fact that just as education is well or ill done, so is performed every other part of the common work of society. What then is it we call our part in this common work? The end to be obtained, and the means to attain it, have been and are strangely misconceived by many: causes have been assumed and effects mistaken. The loose thinking, or rather no thinking, that prevails upon the subject, may be illustrated in every newspaper. To quote an example (that had just caught the lecturer's attention), it was stated that "gold has been the impulse that has caused the distribution of the human race." Was it gold that caused our country, or any of the countries of Europe, and, indeed, any of the countries of the world, to be peopled? Even in Australia, did not the people, being there, and rapidly rising there, really kick their foot against the gold, not knowing of its existence till then?

What, then, has caused the extraordinary growth of our country from the first? What exists to obstruct its still more rapid growth in well-being? Our lessons have led us to agree that it is the duty of all to contribute to the general well-being, and that conduct is bad or good, according as it detracts from, or promotes, this well-being. As each one has his attention directed on one special part of the common work, his feeling ought to be, that it is no degradation to him, however lowly the work.

Compared with former days, our people are better fed, clothed, housed, and warmed; they have better means of locomotion and of instruction, better drainage and ventilation, and therefore enjoy better health, so much so, as to have increased the average duration of life. What is this owing to? No miracle has brought it about; but, as a people, we know better how to produce the necessities and comforts of life, we have become more thoughtful of the future, more sober and trustworthy, and these, and such qualities, taken collectively, are the cause of our more happy lives.

Instruction, again, is only a part of our work—perhaps not a small part; our business is that of training also; in other words, that of enabling the young to acquire good habits. In the infant, the first power we observe is that of simple enjoyment of existence. This power continues through life. Training means the guiding of this power in such a direction that the enjoyment of existence should be the acquisition of truth; that virtue and vice, good conduct and bad conduct, should correspond with pleasure and pain.

The first step of a child in going out into the world is that of selling his labour. He ought, therefore, to be able, from his school instruction, to see for himself that this is a creditable contract. Some accuse employers of earning great profits out of the sweat and the sinews of their labourers. Children can be made to see that it is a good thing there should be employers ready to buy the labour of the young; but it is best for the labourers themselves, and best for society.

There is no contrivance by which the ignorantly-called "degradation of servitude," and "tyranny of employers," can be averted. We might put capital into the hands of the young and inexperienced, that is, into the hands of those least able to turn it to the best account, but this is clearly undesirable, both for the young labourers, and also for society. The young labourers, while working for wages, would be perfecting their good habits, and thus qualifying themselves for higher remuneration. Their future wages would be determined by their wealth-producing powers, that is, by their industrial virtues. Most of them would have to sell their labour all their lives. Before any of them became employers, they must have saved. Children should leave school desirous of improving their position; that is, of improving their wealth-producing powers, and thus adding to the general wealth of society. They ought to know why "strikes" can never be a means of raising average wages. The capital of the country is all employed now, including that which is only in a state of preparation, which is at present a real and proper employment. If all labourers struck at once, it is self-evident the wages-fund, which is an existing, limited quantity, could not supply all with higher wages. And, in a partial strike, it is equally clear that the immediate consequence is, when the strike is supposed to be successful, some only get higher

wages by taking from others. Wages can only be increased in the future by making labour more productive, and by saving, in order to increase the wages part of capital.

Wealth producing power is increased only by better teaching and training. It comes to the young through the parents they are blessed with, and in a degree proportionate to the sense these parents have of their duties, their capability of performing these duties, and of employing others to help them.

Training also means leading the young to think of

how they would act when in their turn they become parents. Their answer to this question—What are your thoughts what you should do when you are parents? would test their own training. Training implies more than instruction, it makes it a duty to act up to the knowledge they possess. People *begin* to be good parents when they are young, long before they undertake direct parental respectability. Training without making the young industrious, intelligent, skilful, trustworthy, humane, is vain, idle, empty talk.



The Month.

THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS.—On the 15th of July, the Committee appointed by the House of Commons to inquire into the treatment which the Inspectors' Reports have received in the Education Office, delivered their report. The substance of this report will be found in another page. Here we have only to do with its results. The main result of the investigation is, that Mr Lowe is personally acquitted of the charge of mutilating the reports. We wish it to be observed that in our May number we pointed out that there were really two counts in the indictment: the one was that of *mutilation*, the other was that of *suppression*. It seems to have been only with the former charge that the Committee has dealt. Nothing, so far as we have been able to discover, has been said regarding the latter, which, though less heinous in a moral point of view, is practically quite as serious. The statement still remains unchallenged and uncontradicted, that several reports sent in for the year 1862-63 were not printed, and were withheld for no other reason than that their inferences were adverse to the opinions of the Education Office. The allegation of garbling, we took care to point out, was made on the authority of Mr Walter. We neither accepted that allegation, nor did we question its truth. We waited for the decision of the Special Committee, and now that it has been given, we readily accept its acquittal of Mr Lowe as final, and we presume Mr Walter will be equally ready to withdraw his charge.

The question of suppression, however, is a different matter. And on this point we have received, from private sources, the most unequivocal testimony. It is very much to be regretted that the Committee did not more specifically take up this phase of the subject. Though the withholding of a report altogether is morally much less objectionable than the presenting of it in a castrated

form, the former method may obviously be made quite as effective as the latter in furthering the ends of the department. We grant, as we did in May, "the right of an educational minister to exercise a censorship of these reports, within certain limits;" but we still deny, as we did in May, "that any remarks bearing upon the working of the existing system, in any of its details or branches," can be held to come within these limits, or constitute the "irrelevant matter" referred to by the Special Committee. The knowledge that remarks which conflict with the doctrines of the Office will be held to be "irrelevant matter," and that on this score an entire report may be withheld, will obviously act more completely as a check upon the inspectors than if the objectionable passages only were to be cut out. In the one case, only a few sentences are sacrificed; in the other, a whole report. In the one case, the inspectors are still allowed to say something; in the other, they are entirely silenced.

The turning point of the controversy, therefore, comes to be, What is "argumentative and irrelevant matter?" The phrase is very vague, and like all vague phrases it allows to the judges a very wide latitude. It stands greatly in need of more precise definition. What has been, or what is henceforth to be, the standard of relevancy? Is it to be the limits of the subject absolutely, or is it to be merely the opinions of the Office? At present it rests with the department solely to determine this point, and so long as this is the case, it is not difficult to perceive which standard is most likely to be adopted. The Committee evidently felt this difficulty when they were led to suggest "that it might be possible to obtain all the information which the inspectors can be desired to give to the department or to Parliament, by requiring them to furnish answers to specific

questions." We do not doubt the practicability of this somewhat clumsy expedient, but we protest very decidedly against the inspectors being reduced to the position of mere reporting-machines. It is hardly to be expected that the more intelligent of our inspectors will submit to have their individuality thus sacrificed. It has often been objected to the Government schoolmasters that they partake of the dull monotony of men cast in the same mould. It will be a grievous thing for English education if the inspectors are ever subjected to the same levelling process.

NEXT SESSION.—There is the promise of abundant work in connection with educational topics in the next session of Parliament. The Government have pledged themselves to introduce a measure for the reform of the Public Schools, based upon the Report of the recent Royal Commission. Sir John Pakington's attempt to re-introduce the question of the Endowment Minute having failed, he has intimated his intention of reviving the discussion next session, with the view of inducing the House to reverse its judgment on Mr Adderley's motion. As the majority by which the latter motion was defeated was a very narrow one, and is held to have been unexpectedly obtained, there are good hopes that the objectionable features of this Minute will ultimately be re-sounded. Then Mr Walter, in furtherance of the design already intimated, is to move for a Commission of Inquiry into the whole administration of the Education department. Sir John Pakington and Mr Adderley have expressed their satisfaction with this announcement, the latter gentleman at the same time protesting against the mode in which "Supplementary Rules" and "Instructions to Inspectors" are issued by the Committee. Mr Gregory is to ask for a Commission on the Management of the Kensington Museum; and, finally, the Bishop of Down and Connor has suggested to Earl Granville the great desirableness of a Special Commission being appointed to inquire into the working of the National System of Education in Ireland. It is also pretty certain that another session of Parliament will not be allowed to pass without the question of Public Education for the Middle Classes being specially discussed. The Government is at present averse to State interference in this matter; but the friends of the proposal are influential, as well as hopeful and resolute.

THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION COMMISSION.—We have good authority for stating, if the terms of the Commission be not published before these pages

reach our readers, that it is intended to extend the inquiry to the Burgh and Grammar Schools. This decision is not to be regarded with entire satisfaction. No doubt the Burgh Schools stand quite as much in need of reform as the elementary schools: in some important respects more so. But it should be remembered that the Commission is limited to one year for its special inquiry (and it is remarkable that already a month has elapsed without its terms or its members being formally announced). This special subject is a very wide and intricate one, and the Commission will find difficulty enough in completing their deliberations regarding it within the prescribed time. It is a pity, therefore, to overburden the Commission or to hamper it, by the addition of a subject which is large and important enough to warrant its being reserved for special inquiry. We can only anticipate that it will be found necessary to extend the duration of the Commission beyond June 1865, to enable it to do justice to the question of the elevation and better equipment of the Burgh Schools.

The constitution of the Commission is exciting considerable interest amongst educational men. At various Teachers' Meetings during the month the question has been discussed; and there is a unanimous feeling that it is of the greatest importance that it should contain one or more practical teachers—men thoroughly acquainted with the working of the present system, in all its details, and in all its various phases. This is very desirable, not only to give point and value to the inquiry, but to secure the confidence of the schoolmasters, upon whose hearty co-operation much of the success of the Commission will depend. This would also be one means of securing that the inquiry shall be strictly an educational, and not merely an ecclesiastical one. The various Church parties (who will doubtless be well represented in the Commission) have so long been allowed to monopolize this subject, that they will quite naturally make their own interests their first care. And we know not how the interests of teachers are to be attended to, if they do not look after them themselves. For this purpose it is necessary that they should stand forth as a united body. It is only thus that they can expect to gain a respectful hearing for their cause, and to exercise their due influence upon the result. Let us, then, sink all political and ecclesiastical differences, and energetically combine in a strenuous effort to shake off ecclesiastical domination, and to secure the fair and final settlement of the education question, as an educational question, on a broad national basis. This is evidently our last chance.

THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THE NEW ARTS CURRICULUM IN THE SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES.

UNTIL the passing of the Fourteenth Ordinance of the Scottish Universities Commission (26th January 1861), the legal arts curriculum extended over four years, or to speak more accurately, over four winter sessions. At the end of his first or his second session, the intending graduate might present himself for examination in Latin and Greek, and he was not required to pay or to shew any further attention to classical literature during his university career. At the end of his third year he might take the degree of B.A. by further undergoing examinations in Mathematics, Logic and Metaphysics, and Moral Philosophy. To qualify for the full Arts degree, that of M.A., he must at the end of his fourth year pass examinations in Natural Philosophy and Rhetoric. Of course, if the student preferred it, he might delay the whole of his examinations for B.A. till the end of his third year, or for M.A., till the end of his fourth. Thus while all students were required to undergo the same amount of examinations, and to attend the same number of years and of classes, they might take their examinations either in three "goes," in two "goes," or in one.

Under this arrangement, no student was required to attend any of the seven classes in the curriculum for more than one session, though it was customary for many students, especially for those who were taking the legal curriculum, with a view either to graduation or the church, to attend for two consecutive sessions the courses of those professors whose subject could not be exhausted in a single course of lectures. This is

the first point at which a change is introduced by the fourteenth Ordinance. Every four years' student, who intends graduating, is positively required to attend "*for not less than two sessions* on the classes of Humanity, Greek, and Mathematics respectively." The number of class-tickets which a student is required to produce on applying for graduation is thus increased from seven to ten, or, to put the matter in another light, the number of guineas which every graduate must pay in class-fees is increased from twenty-one to thirty. To this effect of the alteration we by no means object, as we believe that the Scottish universities would gain far more than they would lose by a more general raising of their fees. But we wish to direct to this aspect of the matter the attention of those (including the Commissioners themselves, *vide* their Report, p. xxx), who are constantly pleading the interests of "poor students" against other changes proposed in the curriculum. It may be urged that, by the same section of the same Ordinance, provision is made for relieving students of this double attendance on their satisfying the Professors in the Faculty of Arts, on examination, that on entering the university they are "qualified to attend the higher classes of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, or any one of them." To this we need only reply, that, as is perfectly well known, the poorest students are, as a class, those who cannot avail themselves of this immunity. The hardship of the heavier impost must, therefore, in the present nature of things, fall precisely upon those who most need exemption. Other aspects of this privilege will come under review immediately.

For, by the last clause of the same section of Ordinance XIV., it is provided that, "where a student has been admitted to the higher classes, both of Latin and Greek, without having previously attended the first or junior Latin and Greek classes, his course of study for the degree of Master of Arts* may be completed within three winter sessions, instead of four." Of the many important improvements which the Commissioners have introduced, we regard this as the most valuable, or as capable of being made so by its proper administration. In the first place, though entrance examinations may yet be far distant, this is really a step towards that very desirable consummation. It appears to be the expectation of those connected with the universities (as it was the intention of the Commissioners), that the three years' course will ere long become the usual or normal course, that of four years being an exceptional arrangement to suit mainly "poor students." To whatever extent this is realized, to that extent will the arts curriculum be fenced by an entrance examination.

In the second place, this change deals out a measure of justice to those students who have hitherto taken care to fit themselves properly for a university course, before entering the university. The four years' course is adapted to the circumstances of the worst prepared students. It was obviously unfair to put the best prepared students exactly on a level with these. And the hardship was especially great in the case of those who were looking forward, after the completion of their Arts curriculum, to a special or professional curriculum, which, in the case of the church, involved an attendance of *other* four years at the university. The fact that an intending divinity student was required to spend eight years at college before taking licence, which he might do in his twenty-second year, formed a strong inducement for boys to leave school at the earliest possible moment. Every session spent at college after their thirteenth year, was an actual reduction from the long curriculum; every year spent at school thereafter was an actual addition to it. The abridgement of the course from eight years to seven was thus a material gain to elementary education. Its further reduction to six years, which we hope all the churches will ere long be induced to effect, will be a still more valuable gain in the same direction. So that,

In the third place, the change in question does justice to the higher schools of the country, by removing the inducement to go to college at so

early an age. In this view, a year taken from the college curriculum is virtually a year added to that of the schools. Without this measure of reform, the elevation of the Scottish Burgh Schools must have continued the same hopeless task that it has been for a century. There was little use in carrying the teaching in these schools much higher so long as it was a matter of importance for their pupils to fly off to the university at so early an age. Now, however, that this flight is less necessary by a year, which, there can be no doubt,—will be turned to much better account by spending ten months of it at school, than five months at college,—we hope that these schools will be allowed and encouraged to make use of the boon.

All these benefits, however, depend for their realisation, as we have hinted, on the proper administration of the new arrangement. At present this appears to be endangered by certain flaws which we have no doubt that experience will speedily remove.

In the first place, we cannot but regard it as somewhat of an anomaly that the test for entrance to the senior classes in Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, is applied only to new students, not to those who have previously passed through the junior classes in these subjects. This destroys very materially the third, and to some extent also the first and second, of the above advantages. It again brings the universities into competition with the schools. For a student who has spent six or seven years at a high school is admitted to the senior classes only after a strict examination; but one who has spent only three or four years at a country school, and then one year at college, is admitted at once to the senior classes "without questions asked." These junior classes thus become a kind of back-stairs, whereby students who are afraid of the examination may get into the upper regions of the course, by spending an extra session in the ascent.

The second flaw in the present arrangement is, that it is administered exclusively by the professors. Our objection, let it be understood, is not that the professors are guilty of any kind of partiality, or are even capable of it; but that it places them in a position from which, with its burdens, responsibilities, and risks, they should by all means, and on every ground, be wholly relieved. As a rule, professors should have as little as possible to do with all kinds of entrance examinations, and that not more on account of the possibility of their being led unconsciously to favour university interests, than on account of their being exposed to the barest imputation of doing so. An examination which is to determine whether a student is

* The degree of Bachelor of Arts was abolished by the Commissioners.

to be admitted to college, or to be sent back to school, is apt to become a very lax affair in the hands of professors. On the other hand, it is wonderful how strict an examination is apt to become when its effect is to determine whether a student shall attend a professor two years or only one, shall pay him six guineas or only three. Now we say the professors are gentlemen who ought not to be put into such a predicament; they ought at once, indeed, to decline to have the exclusive control in this matter. And an easy remedy is within reach. Let the examiners who are associated with the professors in preparing the degree examination papers, be associated with them also in superintending this entrance examination. This would have another good effect. Professors may examine their own students very well. But the subjects of this examination are not yet students, they are merely school-boys; and of school-boys, and on school-work, professors are not the best examiners. There is consequently on the part of professors a tendency to overlook in such an examination those points which form the chief element in school-teaching, though they may sink to a subordinate place in college prelecting. This is very evident in the programme for the last "Three Years' Course" examination, as given in the *Edinburgh University Calendar*, which is as follows:—

"1. Passages from a Latin prose author to be translated into English, *ad aperturam*.

"2. A passage of plain English, in the narrative style, to be translated into Latin.

"3. A passage from an easy Greek author, in the narrative style, to be translated into English, *ad aperturam*.

"4. Greek Grammar, and the leading rules of Greek Syntax."

Thus, in Latin, we have merely translation, and we all know how the glibbest translators will often flounder when tackled on a point of etymology or syntax. But there are no questions in Latin Grammar, on which most of a school-boy's time is bestowed; and the passage of English (by no means too "plain") given for translation into Latin required rather a knowledge of words, in which school-boys are weakest, than a knowledge either of accidence or of syntax. The fourth paragraph alone holds out any hope of a fair testing of school work. But this is only in the programme. When we come to the paper actually set, the delusion is dispelled. As an examination on "Greek Grammar and the leading rules of Greek Syntax," the following is the paper that was actually set:—

"Translate into Greek:—

- (1.) It is difficult to be a king.
- (2.) To hit (*τυγχάνω*) the mark (*σκοπός*) is not easy.
- (3.) The pure heart is free from sin.
- (4.) Who would say that folly is better than wisdom?"

Whether this properly and fairly answers to the programme, we leave scholars to determine.

But there is a *third* flaw in the arrangement, for which, however, we believe that the professors do not hold themselves answerable. It appears that a student who attends for "two sessions the classes of Humanity, Greek, and Mathematics," has complied with the regulations of the Commissioners by giving this double attendance to the *same* class, be it the junior or the senior. Thus a student who fails in the pass examination is not thereby debarred from attending the senior class, only he must attend the class *twice*. He is declared to be unfit for the senior class, yet he is admitted to it. The examination proves that the student is unable to clear the barrier; therefore, say our university authorities, he may walk in, but he must walk in twice! This reduces the matter to a very pitiable basis. It is not, it is plainly declared, a question of fitness or unfitness for the work of the senior classes; it is a question of the payment of one fee or two. This issue, we maintain, is none of our devising. It is the inevitable conclusion to which this interpretation of the Ordinances leads. But is it a fair interpretation? The professors affirm, we believe, that it is; for we are given to understand that it was so decided by the Edinburgh Senatus. Now, however ambiguous the letter of the Commissioners' regulation may be, we cannot conceive that in such a case there can be any, the smallest, doubt about its spirit and intention. The explanation that has been adopted and acted upon (we speak from certain knowledge of the fact) is so preposterous, and moreover so lays open the professors to the imputation of improper motives, that they ought at all hazards to have embraced the other alternative.

The number of those who can be expected to avail themselves of the privilege of a three years' course is still so small, the number of those who have not within their reach the means of preparing themselves for the examination is so very large, that the question is pressing itself on the minds of many intelligent men at present, whether it would not be advisable to adopt some means whereby all students who wished to do so might complete their curriculum in three years. The arts curriculum is certainly too long, especially in the case of those who have in prospect a theo-

logical curriculum of three or four years after the arts curriculum is completed. We have already referred to the inducement which the prospect of a seven or eight years' course at college holds out to students to leave school as soon as possible. But the consideration which weighs most with those who desire some change in this respect is, that while the arts curriculum extends over four years, more than half of that time is spent in vacation, which means, in the majority of cases, in uninterrupted idleness. The college session in the Scottish universities extends over little more than five months; and there exist no means of securing systematic study of any kind during any portion of the other seven months. Professor Blackie, with his usual felicity, lately put this evil very forcibly when he said, "That was really a very monstrous evil, to allow a man five months in which to learn Greek, and then seven months to forget it!" Now it has very naturally occurred to those who feel the weight of these difficulties, that by an extension of the session, or by in some way utilizing for regular study some part of the long vacation, students might easily overtake as much in three years as they now go through in four, and that without the drawback of so many oblivious intervals. It is not proposed to reduce by a single day the amount of class attendance given by any student. All that is proposed is a different distribution of the curriculum; but it is proposed, at the same time, that the extended session should be optional, so that "poor students," or those who preferred things as they are, might prosecute their curriculum under the existing arrangements. The proposal is evidently worthy of the most serious consideration.

We must refer very briefly to the other changes effected in the curriculum by the Commissioners' Ordinances.

The first and most important of these is the superseding of the old and meaningless "maximum" examination, by special examinations for graduation with honours. After a student has successfully completed his examinations for the ordinary degree, he may either immediately present himself for examination in one or more of the departments for which honours are awarded, or he may postpone his actual graduation for one year after his matriculated attendance at college has ceased, and then go up for his further examination. The departments in which candidates for honours may be examined are—(1.) Classical Literature; (2.) Mental Philosophy; (3.) Mathematics, and (4.) Natural Science. We are glad to find Botany, Geology, Zoology, and Chemistry, included under the last head, and further to find

that the Commissioners have empowered the University Courts (Ordinance 18) to add, if they see fit, *one* branch of Natural Science to the ordinary arts curriculum. But surely some place might have been found for higher attainments in the mother tongue, and in native literature, in the honour department. The requirements of the "Ordinary M.A. Examination" in this particular are very ordinary indeed. It would seem that a language, like a prophet, hath no honour in its own country. The general tendency of this honour department seems to be, to make the ordinary examination somewhat lower than it has hitherto been; and it is maintained by those in a position to make the comparison, that, in Edinburgh at least, it has always been higher than the pass examinations in Oxford and Cambridge. It is the intention of this partial lowering of the standard, to make the ordinary degree the natural termination of every ordinary average student's course. If it is at present creditable to take this degree, it would be under this modification quite discreditable not to take it. Then opportunity would be given to students to shew high attainments in the honours department. Much may be said in support of this idea; and it would doubtless be a great matter if graduation were the rule and not the exception, for doubtless many a youth leaves the Scottish universities without a degree, who could not do so in England without some disgrace. At the same time we feel strongly that a degree should always be a distinction; and we think Scotland would do well to limit its imitation of England to matters of progress and not to retrogression.

The new arrangements further allow a student to take his course partly in one university, and partly in another, provided always that he has spent at least the two last sessions of his course in the university in which he graduates, and that he undergoes all his examinations in that university also. A student may thus have what is good in two universities, without being compelled to take the good and the bad together in one.

Under the new, as under the old regulations, a student is permitted to take his degree examinations in three parts, in two parts, or in all parts at once. But the subjects are somewhat differently, and more naturally, grouped. Mathematics, instead of rhetoric, is conjoined with natural philosophy, and English literature is now conjoined with mental and moral philosophy. This arrangement certainly facilitates very much the taking of a degree. But it does so at a considerable sacrifice. It is obviously a disadvantage

that a student may get quit of his classics altogether at the end of his first or second year at college, and, without opening a Latin or a Greek author in his life afterwards, receive the imprimatur of his university. This is not likely to conduce to high scholarship, unless in the case of those students, and as yet they have been very few, in Edinburgh only one, who go up for classical honours, or in the case of candidates for the few fellowships that exist in the northern universities. The arrangement in Trinity College, Dublin, where a student is examined in classics at the end of every session in his course, is certainly a preferable one. And as high scholarship is the desideratum in Scotland, some means ought surely to be devised of securing it, or at least of making it possible.

Certain matters connected with graduation have very properly been left to the regulation of the Senatus Academicus in each university. One of these (Ord. 14, § 3) is the time when the graduation examinations should be held. At present, as heretofore, they are held at the close of the winter session, with the view, we suppose, of making the courses of lectures available as a preparation for the examinations. But surely "cramming" for these ordeals is a purpose to which the professors and their classes should not be subservient; and it is a complaint with many professors that the attention of their most advanced and best students is too much distracted during the last weeks of the session by their preparation for the degree examinations. This ought not to be, especially as the Senatus has it in its power to get rid of the difficulty. The improvement of transferring the degree examinations from the end of the session to the end of the summer vacation, is as obvious as it is easy of accomplishment. In this way, the summer sessions might be turned to better advantage as working months than is pos-

sible under the present loose and confused arrangement.

Another matter left to the regulation of the Senatus, is (Ord. 69, § 1) the order in which the classes of the curriculum shall be taken. As yet, this has been left entirely open. Students are left to decide, each for himself, the order in which the classes shall be attended, subject only to the arrangements which the Commissioners themselves have made for the grouping of the subjects in the piecemeal examination. If it is thought desirable to regulate this matter by enforced instructions, it will of course be necessary for the four universities to act in concert, and agree upon a uniform order; otherwise it might interfere with the privilege of attending two universities, and would thus far "be inconsistent with the provisions" of the Commissioners' Ordinances.

Time only will shew the full effect of these regulations. The reforms have not been radical; but, in many respects, they have been thorough. They have been rather improvements than reforms; but their general tendency is to elevate scholarship and impart greater efficiency to a not too perfect system. It would be rash, therefore, to proceed precipitately to heap reform upon improvement before the latter has had a fair trial. At the same time it should never be forgotten that one of the best things accomplished by the Universities' Commission was, to grant the universities a well devised machinery whereby they might further improve themselves. There are, besides, many points held to be of essential importance by the most experienced educationists, which have been left untouched. And it would be worse than folly, were the universities to leave unused the means placed within their reach for supplying their deficiencies and completing their proper equipment for the great work given them to do.

THE QUARTERLIES ON PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.



HE Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of the Public Schools in England is attracting attention on every hand.

Three of our Quarterly Reviews discuss the subject in their July numbers.

The *Quarterly Review* is conservative in the highest degree, and asserts that some of the recommendations of the Commissioners are "of a nature to rouse much opposition, and even some

alarm." The writer of the article thinks that before the curriculum can be extended, certain preliminary reforms must take place within the schools. He thus sums up his own recommendations:—

"The following is a brief summary of the principal remedies we suggest:—Better teaching at home, and especially at the preparatory schools; a great reform (according to the circumstances of each case) in the method of hearing lessons at the

public schools; arrangements for teaching, in the proper sense of the word, the backward and the dull (a boy's dislike to his work is caused not so much by its dryness as by his own sense of failure); and lastly, the establishment of class lectures for the teaching of composition and certain other subjects. When this preliminary reform is effected, it will be found both easy and advantageous to enlarge the present curriculum; but not till then."

The remarks which the writer makes on the method of conducting a class well deserve the consideration of all teachers:—

"And in truth we have nothing very recondite to propose, nothing but what is contained by implication in the report before us, and when plainly stated is a mere truism. In the first place, then, stands the obvious preliminary to all progress that the saying of a lesson to a master must be a reality; it must be something which it is very satisfactory to do well, and very disagreeable to do ill; and it must be contrived that if the lesson is not learnt, the chances of detection are much greater than those of escape. We can imagine no means of effecting this except by a system of 'taking places' (in all but the highest forms), not the languid permutations which are sometimes called by the name, but an active, stirring, vigilant competition, in which the slightest blunder, or even hesitation, is visited by the loss of a place. Every day brings a revolution in the order of precedence. The senior boy of the class may find himself by an ill-prepared lesson brought to the bottom. The junior, by a lucky correction, neglected by the boys before him, may suddenly get to the top. The attention of all is kept up by a constant passage of questions down the ranks, and the idle and ill-prepared are marked out by their silence for examination. There is a passage in the report on Winchester College which is so much to the purpose that we cannot do better than quote it. Vol. i. 147:—"The system of promotion at Winchester is nearly the reverse of that at Eton. At Eton a boy rises in the school chiefly by seniority; at Winchester his rate of progress is determined by his success in an incessant competition, in which every lesson and every exercise counts for a certain numerical value, and which never pauses or terminates till he reaches the sixth form. Places are taken in every division below the sixth form, and each boy receives for each lesson a number of marks, answering to the place he holds in the division at the end of the lesson. Thus, if he is twentieth from the bottom he receives twenty marks. . . . At the end of every week the marks gained for all the lessons are added up, and the

same thing is done at the end of every month; this record of each boy's progress is called the "Classicus Paper." The promotion of each boy at the end of a half year depends on the number of marks he has received in the Classicus Paper during that half year, with the addition of those he has gained (if his place in the school is below the senior part of the fifth) for "standing up" at the end of the summer half,—which is explained to be a general repetition of all he has learnt by heart, either for school business or for the express purpose of this competition. The Commissioners go on to recommend periodical competitive examinations 'as a means of correcting the defects inseparable from the system of taking places as a method of promotion.' These defects, it seems to us, can scarcely exist except where the system of taking places has lost its vivacity and reality. But at any rate, as an additional test of diligence, there cannot be the slightest objection to the competitive examinations proposed; although no examinations can be accepted as a substitute for the active, ever-present competition of taking places. At the beginning of the half year the end of it appears at an incalculable distance, and the stimulus of so distant a struggle acts but feebly. The practice of taking places not only has the incidental merits (and prodigious merits they are) of enforcing a habit of close attention and promoting accuracy, but by occasional unexpected successes it rouses the spirit of emulation in a boy who never felt it before, and even awakes powers of which he himself was unconscious, while it extends the influence of emulation in gradually widening, though less strongly marked circles throughout the whole division:—

'Est quadam prodire tenus si non datur ultra.'

He who has no hope of gaining the prizes may at least desire to be among the first twelve of the class; another will strive to be in the first half; and dull indeed must he be who does not make an effort to avoid the almost ridiculous position of last.

"But to give efficacy to the practice of taking places, even when conducted properly, it is necessary that the method of hearing the lesson should be of the most searching character. Instead of a vague and general description of what we conceive this method should be, we are glad to be able to give a detailed example. Dr Arnold used to attribute the accurate school scholarship for which Winchester was remarkable to the mode of hearing lessons adopted by Dr Gabell, who was head master in the early part of the present century. As described by old Wykehamists, it does not seem

to have presented in its various parts any remarkable novelty; but, as a whole, it was in its day unrivalled, and probably even now merits attention. It should be mentioned that the forms in the middle part of the school passed for alternate fortnights under his tuition, and it is not his mode of dealing with the more advanced scholars of the sixth form that we are describing, but his way of testing and perfecting the 'grounding' of boys who are still occupied with the elementary parts of scholarship. In the first place, he insisted on a loud, clear, slow utterance; every syllable to be heard distinctly at a considerable distance. It usually cost a new boy two or three harassing lessons to learn to read, but the difficulty once got over was surmounted for ever, and the effect of this practice in securing accuracy and precision in construing was wonderful. He did not insist on a boy's knowing all his lesson, but he did insist on his knowing accurately how much he could do, and how much he could not. And it was understood to be a sufficient excuse for not construing one or two sentences if the pupil, on being called on, at once stated his inability, and could shew that he had marked the passage previously in ink. What this able teacher desired to prevent was the loose habit of study which disposes the learner to rest satisfied with a knowledge of the individual words, and to trust to chance for hammering out the construction. After the passage had been read, especially if it was read unintelligently, he would desire the pupil to look up from his book and tell its general meaning (an excellent though merely incidental lesson in English); or by the single question, 'Where is the apodosis?' he would awaken him to the alarming consciousness that though he could construe each separate limb of the sentence, he had no distinct and clear perception of the meaning of the whole. The pupil was also expected to state the general connection of the passage with the subject (Horace's 'Satires and Epistles'—no easy task), and it was only after drawing from the class their own notions on the subject that the Doctor gave his own lucid explanation.

"But it was in Greek parsing, above all, that his ingenuity was conspicuous in condensing into the shortest space the most searching examination. His first question with respect to each Greek verb in the lesson generally was, What is it like in the grammar? A boy who could answer this shewed at once that he could parse it thoroughly; but this was not enough; the same boy or another was required to parse the word, and the parsing involved the tracing of every link of the formation, and the repetition, if required, of

every rule relating to it. Each boy was required to bring his grammar with him, and instead of saying what the given word resembled, the class were frequently required to find it in the book itself, in order to familiarise them with the use of what, in the strictest etymological sense, the Doctor desired should be a *Manual*; and, after a certain pause, places were lost by those who were still turning over the leaves with the word un-found.

"Contrary to the all but universal practice of his day, Dr Gabell rarely, if ever, flogged for lessons; nor was he very careful in exacting the impositions which, it seems, he set rather profusely. Like a clever sheep-dog, he made his bark more effectual than his bite, and inspired more fear than many other masters of well-remembered severity. By the concurrent testimony of his pupils, it is certain he made it thoroughly mortifying to an intelligent boy to fail in a lesson, and he inspired even the most sluggish with a great anxiety to 'get off,' and also with the salutary conviction that the only way to ensure this was to master the lesson. 'Cribs,' which in some great schools are so generally used (as we learn from the evidence), and which no vigilance can entirely banish, are thus rendered superfluous. When the pupil is expected to know everything that the dictionary or grammar can tell respecting every word, a 'crib' is of little use except to give the general meaning of a difficult sentence, and this amount of help is sometimes rather useful than mischievous. It was very interesting, we have been told, to watch the devices by which the Doctor would try to fix in the memory of his junior class the first fragments of more advanced scholarship as they were suggested by the day's lesson. But it is only the probing and searching power of his method which we desire to hold up as a model for imitation.

"The attainment of accurate grounding will be much facilitated by the general adoption of one uniform and improved grammar for the use of all the great schools; and we are glad to hear the masters of the nine great foundations under consideration have met for the purpose of carrying out the suggestion of the Report to this effect:—When the task is in such hands we will venture on only two suggestions. The new manual must be short—let the reader who dreads a book in more than one volume allow for the depression with which a schoolboy takes up a thick closely-printed 8vo. in sheepskin, with the dreary anticipation that he 'must learn all that,'—and it must be strictly elementary. School-books are good in proportion as they resemble oral teaching, and

the great advantage of oral teaching consists in its supplying information just as it is wanted, and not perplexing the learner with premature instruction. In the upper forms a second grammar to serve as an introduction to the niceties of scholarship, would be necessary."

We quote from the *Quarterly Review* the following remarks on the composition of Latin verse, that our readers may contrast them with those of the *Edinburgh Review* on the same subject:—

"The composition of Latin verse is the point most frequently assailed by invective and ridicule, and certainly, as now in many cases practised, it is very different from what it might be, and has a very different value from that which rightly belongs to it. Properly regulated, it is the most ingenious device for inducing an intelligent boy to acquire the refinements of scholarship; it leads him to study the idioms, the turns of expression, the thoughts of his Latin models, with a degree of attention which no other exercise could call forth. It is a lesson in criticism; it teaches him to consider his subject with a view to select the most striking topics, and to group them so as to suit the prescribed length of his task. It gives to his school studies the zest of authorship, and from even a trifling success he derives an amount of stimulus and encouragement which we are bold to say nothing else will supply. But in order that verse-making may be made of any use to an average boy, some method of teaching it very different from those usually employed is needed."

Much of the article in the *Edinburgh Review* is occupied with the question whether the classical languages should be the main subject of study in our public schools. The writer of the article is inclined to think that the recommendations of the Commissioners do not go far enough, but he expresses his uncertainty as to what form the highest education of the nineteenth century should take. The article is an able one, but the writer seems to be ignorant that questions which he deems fresh and almost untouched have been discussed with the utmost ability, philosophical insight, and great candour by many eminent German thinkers. In fact, both this article and the article in the *Westminster Review* give ample evidence how very far behind the Germans and French we are in a knowledge of education as a science, or, in other words, of the laws of education. We make two extracts from the *Edinburgh Review*, which give the main features of the writer's point of view. We may take some other opportunity of drawing attention to the solutions of the questions which are now discussed, that have been propounded and accepted in Germany and France.

After criticising Mr Gladstone's reasons for making classical literature the main study of our public schools, the writer in the *Edinburgh Review* remarks:—

"The strain imposed by the slow, painful, unfructifying study of dead languages on the mere will of the pupil, goaded on by rewards and punishments, is enormous. Every mature student knows what it would be to give enforced attention to a study in which he felt no interest either literary or practical; how great would be the waste of mental energy in such a process, to say nothing of the disgust. It is constantly taken for granted that a disagreeable and profitless exercise of the mental powers must be more invigorating than one which is more pleasant. But this ascetic doctrine is, we suspect, like asceticism in general, at variance with nature. The greater interest a man takes in his work, the more he is able to employ his faculties on it without exhaustion, the more, consequently, his faculties are exercised, and the greater their powers become. This is a fact of which every one is conscious, or which every one may observe; and it is not to be left out of account, merely because, if recognised, it would render the process of education less odious to the pupil, and less irksome to the instructor. The rudiments of every study must inevitably be dry. An adult in mastering them is supported by his present sense of the valuable knowledge to which they lead: a boy must be supported by boyish inducements—the desire of pleasing his instructors, and ultimately the fear of punishment. But here is a whole educational course up to the age of twenty-two to be passed in learning rudiments, and so far as the majority of the pupils are concerned, rudiments alone. In the time of our forefathers, the victim was kept up to his work by the constant and unsparring use of the rod. The schoolmasters of that day, to use their own phrase, 'put it in at the right end.' And the reward of their well-directed efforts was, we have no doubt, that the majority of pupils in those days were 'better grounded' than they are now: in other words, they could repeat with an unflinching accuracy, the fruit of perpetual whippings, the contents of the old Eton and Westminster grammars—an accomplishment, or rather a virtue, the decline of which is much deplored by the Spartans of education, though its value, intellectually speaking, was absolutely null. Public opinion has now forbidden the use of the rod as a regular instrument of instruction. The substitute, the use of which is being daily carried to greater lengths, is competition; a stimulus which is of course operative only in the case of

ambitious boys, and which in the case of ambitious boys is liable to produce infirmities of character, and sometimes leads to such an overstraining of the mental powers in youthful contests as to impair the energies for the real work of life. A certain degree of interest in the subject, or at least of that sense of real progress towards excellence which partly supplies the place of interest, especially in the case of boys, is the motive power indicated by nature to support the will in the effort of sustained attention. And so far as experience has gone, it seems to us to prove that the indications of nature cannot safely be defied.

"Let us emphatically repeat that we are not counselling what Mr Gladstone calls 'organic rashness.' We are perfectly aware that on such a subject as education change must be gradual, and that it must rather wait upon than anticipate the course of public opinion. We are not even venturing to recommend any change at all. What we do recommend, and most earnestly recommend, is, that this subject, so vital and (considering the improvement of education which is going on in the classes below the gentry) of such pressing importance, should be cleared of mere prejudice, looseness of thought, and mystical fancies; and that the problem before us should be submitted to the ordinary tests of reason and experience fairly applied, and with a rational determination to abide by the result. We are all the more concerned to insist on this when a new lease of life, as it were, is given to the existing system by the judgment of so distinguished a tribunal as that of the Royal Commission."

The second extract we make contains the writer's criticism of the time-table proposed by the Commission.

"The Commissioners have constructed a time-table, shewing, in their judgment, that there is room for all the modern subjects which they recommend, as well as for the classics which they leave supreme, in the distribution of lessons in every week.

I. Classics, with History and Divinity	11
II. Arithmetic and Mathematics . . .	3
III. French or German	2
IV. Natural Science	2
V. Music or Drawing	2
	<hr/>
	20
	<hr/>

The Commissioners assume that the school lessons will take an hour each; and that in the case of classics they will take ten, and in the case of modern languages and natural science respectively, two additional hours for preparation in

the course of the week. Five hours besides are allowed for composition.

"We do not doubt that what is here proposed is feasible, so far as time is concerned. What we doubt is, whether any head master or other person will think that it is feasible in any other sense, when he considers what the difficulties of mastering two dead languages are, what a concentration of energy on the part of the masters, and what an application of stimulants of all kinds to the boys this Sisyphean task demands, how really absorbing and exhausting are the efforts which an ambitious boy makes to obtain distinction in this the grand line of preferment, how wearied boys who are not ambitious are left after toiling under compulsion at the rudiments of a language which they know they will never acquire. The fact is, as it seems to us, that here are two competing systems of education—one belonging to the sixteenth century, the other to the nineteenth. The system belonging to the nineteenth century is struggling to force, and, backed by the requirements of the Civil Service, Indian and Army examinations, has to a very limited extent succeeded in forcing, its way into the place of that belonging to the sixteenth. The Commissioners see the struggle; cling, like Mr Gladstone, with a natural tenacity to the old system adorned by so many great names, and so rooted in the allegiance of the English gentry; but at the same time appreciate, like enlightened men, the claims of modern knowledge, and attempt to settle the difference by superadding the new system to the old. We are not sanguine as to the result of their plan.

"We are not sanguine, at least, unless some method can be discovered of teaching Greek and Latin with much less expenditure of labour and time than they demand at present. And it is not only possible, but probable, that there may be a good deal to be done in this direction. Classical education hitherto has not only, like the Turk, allowed no brother near its throne, but it has indulged in a sort of prodigality of tyranny which disdained any economy of the labour and time devoted to its service. The teachers of classics have never taken the trouble really to convince themselves and prove to the world that what is called 'good-grounding,' that is, the learning of grammars by rote before books or even vocabularies are employed—the most irksome and repulsive of all conceivable tasks—is so indispensable a preliminary to the study of Greek and Latin as it is practically assumed to be. In the case of a modern language, such a process would be absurd; and though the case of a dead no doubt differs

in this respect from that of a living language, we should be glad to have it ascertained, on rational grounds, how far the difference extends. To the schoolmasters of the old *régime* the asceticism of the established method was in itself almost a sufficient recommendation. Their ideal of education was the beating into a boy something which he was by nature very unwilling to learn; and if an easy way of becoming a good scholar could have been invented, scholarship would almost have lost its merits in their eyes. But we may hope that their notions on this subject are by this time buried in their venerated graves. Ascham, the great educational liberal of his day, recommends, in his 'Schoolmaster,' that the rules of grammar should be read, not alone, but with an author, whose sentences the teacher is to explain by reference to the rules. 'This,' he says 'is a lively and perfit waie of teaching of rewles; where the common way used in common scholes, to read the grammer alone by itselfe, is tedious for the master, hard for the scholer, and uncomfortable for them both.' But the article in which retrenchment seems most obviously feasible is that of Greek and Latin composition, especially in verse. Porson, according to his recent biographer, pronounced modern Latin and Greek verses worthless. We need not go so far as this. We will allow that many of these compositions, the work of men of taste and genius, who had acquired an extraordinary familiarity with the idiom of a dead language, are really beautiful: and if they are beautiful to us, it signifies very little whether they would have seemed perfectly correct in diction to a Greek or Roman reader. Perhaps they would have seemed as correct to Claudian as the verses of Claudian would have seemed to Virgil. Let them be written as crowning displays of consummate scholarship by those who have a turn for them, and who have a sufficient command of the Greek or Latin language to enable them to write poetry in it with a chance of obtaining excellence, or at least with a chance of rising above doggrel. Let them form a part, an optional part at all events, of the examinations, the object of which is to distinguish the most exquisite scholars. But to extort them as a weekly, or even (at Eton) more than a weekly task from boys or youths who have no command of the language, and who are physically incapable, and well known by their teachers as well as themselves to be physically incapable, of producing anything but the most abject trash, is a system of folly, and almost of cruelty, of which we never heard any reasonable defence. We must say the same with regard even to prose composition, if it

is of such a nature as to require a greater command of the language than the pupil, from the extent of his reading, can be expected to possess. Exercises, no doubt, are requisite in learning any language; and in learning a dead language they are indispensable. But to set a boy to do exercises with his grammar and dictionary is a different thing from setting him to do a composition requiring stores of phraseology and idiom which he cannot possibly possess. Nothing can exceed the wretchedness of this work to pupil and master, or the tendency which it has to disgust the pupil with learning, and to make him look upon it as at once odious and worthless. 'There is no one thing,' says Ascham, 'that hath more either dulled the wittes or taken awaye the will of children from learning then the care they have to satisfie their masters in the making of latines.' He afterwards speaks of 'this butcherlie feare in making of latines;' and those who have to do with the Latin compositions of boys, or even with those of men at the University, trying to produce Latin prose under the fear of a 'pluck,' will acknowledge the appropriateness of the expression."

The writer in the *Westminster Review* goes considerably farther than the author of the article in the *Edinburgh*. The substance of his opinions is contained in the following extract:—

"We should say, then, in reply to the reasons which the Commissioners have urged for making classics the principal subject of study in our public schools, that although the study of language and literature is of the highest importance as supplementing the deficiencies of a merely scientific training, it need by no means be concluded that Greece and Rome must furnish us with the best and most useful models for either one or the other. In the vast majority of cases, a boy's education is over as soon as he has left school, and though it is true that he may never make himself acquainted with Greek and Latin if he has not learned them earlier, yet the deficiency will be more serious if he has learned them, and has learned little else, and forgets, as he soon will do, even them, when his attention is fully occupied with the calls of his profession or his business. A principal 'subject,' too, should not be determined on by a somewhat arbitrary selection of one subject from among many, and by afterwards making up for its defects as an educational instrument by tacking on to it three or four other subjects, to be pursued quite independently. Such a plan as this could have no other effect than to hinder a boy's mind from ever attaining a conception of the unity of all knowledge. The boy's

attention would be distracted by the multitude of unconnected details thus forced upon him, and the man who had grown up under such a system would be likely to go on to the end of his life, furnished perhaps with a good amount of multifarious information, but having never, in the highest sense of the word, learned anything, and with little enough prospect of ever doing so now. For a principal subject to have any right to its place, it must be shewn in its behalf that it can form a real centre about which can be arranged all else that will have to be taught beside it, and while this claim has never even been asserted in favour of Greek and Latin, it will be admitted without hesitation in favour of history, to which Greek and Latin themselves may hold a fair rank as subordinates. We have already stated our reasons why early modern history should at present be preferred to any other, but its study might be supplemented, without any loss of unity, by Greek and Roman history on the one hand, and by later modern history on the other. Language, and literature in all its forms, might be pursued to any extent as a part strictly of the same plan, and so might the physical sciences, and they would gain and not lose in importance by being treated thus historically. Every good result that could follow from the study of many isolated subjects, would follow from the study of one subject around which the others could be grouped as accessories, and there would be the further advantage, of quite incalculable value, that the mind of the learner would be trained as soon as possible to stand above and not below the mass of information which it would receive, and would acquire the habit of viewing everything in strict relation to the one subject of highest human interest—the progress of the human race. And it would be likely, too, that such a principle of unity would retain a firm hold upon the mind that had once admitted it, for it would address itself to the affections not less than to the judgment, and might exert, therefore, a continued influence, even when the professed work of education was supposed to be finished and over. The man would continue ever better to appreciate the lessons which the boy had learned, and would be furnished with rational forms for thought and rational objects for feeling. He would have gained, from his early training, all the advantage which the knowledge of many things can offer, and more than all the power which the present system proposes as its single aim. It would not of course be every mind that could reap the full benefit of such a method; there would be a more and a less in the results attained by it, but all might learn

something which they would value. Special knowledge would be as well gained as ever by those who were unable to master the simplest philosophical views, while the pariahs of the intellectual world could do their 'anything else,' as they do now at Eton; they could 'row, or play cricket or any other athletic game,' with no worse interruptions than they are exposed to from Latin and Greek."

We extract his remarks on the subject of Latin composition as a pendant to the two extracts on the same subject from the *Quarterly* and *Edinburgh* :—

"In the first place, the amount of time given up to classics, even in the scheme proposed by the Commissioners, is out of all proportion to the amount of knowledge of them which it is desirable that boys should acquire, or likely that they will acquire. It is easy to teach them up to a certain point, and very difficult to go beyond that point. More time and more labour do not produce anything like proportional results. Now, if one-half, or rather more, of a boy's working hours, from nine to nineteen, is to be devoted to classics, that time can only be filled up, in the majority of cases, by spreading the work, intentionally, over a longer time than necessary, and taking ten years to do what might be done very well in two. Composition in the dead languages may especially be regarded as a mere waste of time. The kind of excellence which is attainable in it can have only a fancy value. Like good china, it is curious in its place, but of no great use; while, for the vast majority of our young classical poets, the real parallel for their verses is not china at all, but some bad imitation of it, to be palmed off, if possible, upon the unwary. If composition, however, were wholly cut out of the *curriculum*, and boys were allowed to begin their classics at a later age than they do now, and after a proper training, which they do not now receive, in English, and French or German, they might acquire in two years, or, in cases of exceptional stupidity, in three, as much knowledge of Greek and Latin as they ever do now after ten or twelve years' study. The experience of Professors in the London 'Ladies' Colleges' may be adduced in our support. Young ladies who leave school at sixteen or seventeen, after an education proverbially defective in method and thoroughness, but who have practised something of English composition and have picked up some sort of knowledge of modern languages, do, if they are properly taught, learn Latin fairly in about the time we have stated as the *maximum* necessary for boys of ordinary capacity; and this though they pursue it by no

means as a principal study, but only as sharing their attention with a variety of other subjects. Is it too much to suppose that boys could do the same, giving, as they would, more hours to Latin, and putting Greek in the place of some one or more of the other subjects which necessarily

occupy a lady's time and attention? Those who could not had better resign mental cultivation to the other sex, and sacrifice to the graces instead with music and dancing and ornamental needle-work."

THE ILIAD OF HOMER.*

MR NORGATE has achieved a task which speaks well at any rate for his industry. He has turned the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad*, to say nothing of the *Batracho-myo-machia*, into English, choosing for his metre the dramatic blank verse in use with Shakespeare, and Milton in his *Comus*. It is hardly needful to say that dramatic blank verse differs from the ordinary blank verse, in the occasional addition of a weak syllable to the ten-syllabled or five-metred line, which has the effect of introducing an hendecasyllabic line among decasyllabic. It is some time since his *Odyssey* was put forth. The *Battle of Frogs and Mice* was a Christmas present last year; and now the *Iliad* is published as the completion of the translator's labours, which we are bound to characterise as great and noteworthy. For such an undertaking necessitated perseverance and resolution, sound Greek scholarship, and competency to handle one's own mother-tongue. Most of these requirements have been fully satisfied in the volume before us. Peculiarities there are, indeed, in Mr Norgate's English, which we look upon in the light of a monomania on his part, such as his stern resolve to let the verb in the second person singular constantly go without its subject, *e. g.*, VI. 258-9, "Till I shall fetch thee honey-smooth wine, wherewith mayst pour libations;" and his equally curious crotchet for inserting "yea" in every possible point of his speeches, *e. g.*, VI. 475-8:—

"O Zeus, and all ye gods! now grant yea this
My child here to become among the Trojans,
Yea, e'en as I distinguish'd;"

which we can only account for by the supposition that the translator is a Quaker of the strictest sect, unless, indeed, Hector himself is taken to have held with that persuasion. To these, however, we become accustomed, and there are pages after pages where these do not offend our eyes

and ears. The greater question is as to the judgment which selected the peculiar form of metre, and having done so, furnished the particular fashion of speaking of which such metre is the vehicle. If Mr Norgate fails here, it is but what many have done before him. He has full title to the courage which leaps into the breach, and tries to cut its way to victory, and if we entertain a strong conviction that he is more bold than successful, that does not diminish our sense of his rightness of endeavour, or prevent our seeing in how many respects he has so laboured as to serve effectually the cause and views which he maintains. In his preface he rapidly sketches the diverse English theories as to Homeric translation, objecting, for obvious reasons, to bare word-for-word versions, as well as to broad paraphrase. His own ideal is one to which we can fully subscribe—"a strong, full translation in racy, plain, simple English, and in some one metre without stanzas, which shall have a continuous and rapid flight." Disliking, as most English ears do, the foreign hexameter, he pleads for "an English line that shall have an unvarying number of feet, yet a varying number of syllables." We so far agree with him as to believe that blank verse is a better exponent of Homer than the heroic couplet, or the hendecasyllable of Alford, perhaps even than the Spenserian stanza. We think it must yield, however, to the fourteen-syllable ballad metre, if it is judiciously used, as it has been by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in his excellent version of the First Book of the *Iliad*. Saving this, we hold "blank verse" to be probably the best exponent of Homer's thoughts, words, and lines; and if "blank verse," then preferably dramatic blank verse, not, perhaps, so much because a varying number of syllables in Greek requires a varying number of English equivalents, as because an occasional hendecasyllable relieves the tedium of uniformity, and becomes a pleasant break in upon the ear, as well as a fair licence for the translator.

In his treatment of the *Odyssey*, Mr Norgate held the same views which he has held stedfast

* The *Iliad* of Homer: Reproduced in Dramatic Blank Verse. By T. S. Norgate. London and Edinburgh: Williams and Norgate. 1864.

to the end of his task; but we can discern modifications of his peculiar ideas as to verbiage. There were many more crabbed lines in which verbs preceded their nominatives, particles hitched themselves into most awkward places, and "yeas" and "nays," "evens" and "indeeds," indicated a sort of schoolboy expedient to fill up halting measures. Indeed, although there was much to praise, there was an ungainliness about the translation first essayed, which must have unduly prejudiced many readers against the translator and his particular theory.

We were glad to see tokens of manifest improvement in Mr Norgate's version of the Battle of the Frogs and Mice, and did not fail to draw attention to its merits in an early number of our new series. And we may fairly extend a like measure of commendation to the now completed Iliad. It is, on the whole, an adequate and a creditable version. A little rugged; a trifle too literal at the expense of grace and elegance: somewhat more, after all, of a faithful translation, in which verse is a secondary consideration, than of a poem represented out of the Greek, in simple, plain, racy English. Yet when we compare it with Brandreth's blank verse translation, which we have been accustomed to look upon as remarkably accurate and faithful, we are surprised to find how often Mr Norgate has contrived to give word for word, while Mr Brandreth has let "epithets" or secondary words slip out; and we are led by this comparison to admit that oftentimes the awkwardnesses of Mr Norgate's style are in some degree ascribable to his setting faithfulness before him as his highest aim and object. Sometimes, indeed, he carries this too far. In the same Book, the 6th, from which we have drawn our illustrations already, and at the seventy-second verse of the translation, we find an instance of this. Nestor is addressing the Greeks:—

"Let none now fly upon the spoil, and stray
For sake of carrying off the most he can
Down to the ships; but let us kill the men:
And the dead corpses throughout all the field
At ease thereafter shall ye strip of This."

The Greek of the last verse is—

ἵππευα δὲ καὶ τὰ ἔκπλοιο
νεκρούς ἀμπεδίον συλῆσθε τεθνειώτας.

And we need not say that "of this" is an adequate English rendering of τὰ, *i. e.*, ταῦτα, τὰ σκῆλα, or τὰ ἵναρα. But ἵναρων had occurred too far back for the demonstrative pronoun to be its fit exponent at the end of the passage. We are tempted to ask "of what?" especially as Mr

Norgate dignifies "this," for some reason best known to himself, with a capital T. Brandreth translates "Ye shall the dead upon the plain despoil," which is much more clear. In another line of the same book, we cannot refrain from a smile at our translator's literalness (VI. 181)—

πρόσθε λίων, ὀπίθε δὲ δράκων, μέσση δὲ χίμαιρα,
"A lion before, a dragon behind, and middle a she-goat."

We may, it is true, think Pope too diffuse in his rendering—

"Behind a dragon's fiery tail was spread,
A goat's rough body bore a lion's head."

But Brandreth's version is close enough, without being awkwardly literal—

"With lion's head, goat's body, and snake's tail."

In another place it is an excess of literalness in Mr Norgate to translate *καρίκης* (VI. 418), "but burned him down." We do not at all suppose that Homer, in using the preposition in composition here, meant us to suppose that Andromache particularly wished it to be understood that Achilles roasted her father to a cinder. We have heard of "stewing down" and "boiling down," but never of burning *down*, unless it were in the case of buildings. We do not recollect that in the Book of Martyrs, Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley are said to have been burned *down* by order of Bloody Mary.

It must, notwithstanding, be allowed that literalness has its merits as well as its drawbacks; and in point of exact faithfulness it is probable that Mr Norgate's version distances most previous attempts. He has generally taken great pains to select the best English representative of each Greek epithet, the fullest equivalent for each Greek appositional clause (such as *οἰωνοτόλων ὄχ' ἄριστος*, "the choicest augur versed in bird-flight lore"), and the most truthful reproduction of speech after speech, and description after description in the sense of the original. If he could have abstained from such a lavish use of particles (dangerous ground for the best translator), he could have done better and more wisely. That his version will rank with Worsley's *Odyssey*, we do not bid him hope. It will be useful to set alongside of Pope, as the literal contrasted with the unliteral. And if it could attain to a second edition by the time when reflection has subdued the translator's peculiar penchants for odd and ungainly particles, sown broadcast, into a conviction that that cannot be the best manner of translation which leaves the most ruggednesses for the reader to stumble over, we should be in-

olined to augur for it a more high and enduring place than in its present form it is likely to attain unto.

We have selected one or two average specimens of the general execution of Mr Norgate's work. which we regard as highly conscientious and meritorious, though it does not always square with our views of the fittest vehicle of Homer's words and style.

Here is a version of the passage in the Sixth Book, where Hector is represented acting upon the advice of Helenus (Il. VI., 103-109, *αἰεὶ ἵπαθ'*):

"He spake; wherest

Nothing was Hector slack to obey his brother:
But straight from forth his chariot to the ground
He leapt with all his arms; and brandishing
His pointed spears, went all about his host
And cheer'd them on for fighting, and aroused
The dreadful shout of battle. So about
They turned themselves and faced the Achaian
foe.

Then went the Argives back and ceased from
slaughter.

Indeed they thought some deathless god was come
Down from the starry heaven to help the Trojans
Since so they faced about."

To this very fair specimen we add as a still fairer, Antenor's description in the Third Book of Odysseus speaking in council or assembly:—

"When, howe'er,

Odysseus ever ready started up,
He used to stand, eyes fixed upon the ground
And look askance the while, and neither forwards
Nor backwards did he use to sway his sceptre:
But motionless he kept it, like a man
All-ignorant: and sure some wrathful one

And a mere witless fool thou might'st have thought him:

But when forsooth he sent from forth his chest
His mighty voice, and words, gentle as flakes
Of snow in winter,—not might other mortal
Vie with Odysseus then indeed; no longer
Then so astonished were we, as we look'd
Upon the comely fashion of Odysseus."—216-226.

In the last line or two we have a sample of the occasional disregard of common and received construction in which Mr Norgate is so apt to indulge. Our fingers have itched while we transcribed them to correct "Not might other mortal" into some more simple and intelligible form. But the whole passage is very free from fault, and very correctly as well as spiritedly rendered.

To those who read Homer in the original, and are at the same time glad of a sufficiently close version alongside of them, the better to apprehend the sense of the Greek, this translation will serve as a very useful and valuable aid. It is very rarely at fault in the rendering of words and passages, though we have come on one place where Mr Norgate refers *ἀπόθεν ἰκαιομένης* (VI. 17), through an inadvertance to Oxylyus, instead of *οὐρίς*. We cannot, indeed, go so far as to recommend young ladies, or those who know no Greek, to read Norgate's Homer in preference to Pope's, for we should be sending them to a poor substitute for the most highly polished English versification. But we can conscientiously say to those who are curious in such things, that we recommend them to place this volume of Mr Norgate's on their Homeric shelf beside many recent versions, to which it is not inferior, and in company with which it may always pass muster.

THE NATURE OF BOYS.

ALL good teaching depends upon two things: a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught, and a thorough knowledge of the nature of those who are to receive the teaching. The one is the complement of the other. If we do not know the nature of the individual to be taught, it is likely that we shall present him with information which he cannot properly digest, or lead him into processes of thought too high or too low for him. And if we do not know the subject to be taught, we are not able to select from it those portions which are best adapted to draw out all the powers of the pupil.

We intend in this article to draw attention to the nature of those with whom as teachers we have to deal. We are far from supposing that in one or two articles we can exhaust the subject. We intend merely to supply matter for thought.

The first remark that we have to make is very trite but very important, *that boys are not men*. This fact has to be thoroughly imprinted on our minds. We are apt to forget it continually. We are men. Our thoughts, feelings, and emotions, are those of men. Boys look like us in many respects, so like us that we forget that they differ at all from us. And the consequence is that we are apt to fall into mistakes by treating those who

are not men just as if they were. We attribute to boys the motives of men, and thus fail to do them justice, or we give to their thoughts and acts a strength and a steadiness which are foreign to their nature.

Many, perhaps, will not be inclined to allow that the nature of a boy is diverse from that of a man, in so many points and to such an extent as we should maintain that it is. They seem to us to confound the latent capabilities with the actual attainments of a boy, and give boys credit for powers which will be developed only after the lapse of many years of training. Yet even the transformations of lower animals should teach us to be cautious. The frog is a real fish in its earliest state, and subject to all the conditions of fish-existence. And the foetus of the human species, it is now ascertained, passes through forms analogous to the four divisions of the vertebrata. How much more likely is it that the mind should pass through still wider changes before it should attain its normal development!

The stages of a boy's life may be divided into three. First, there is the period from his birth to the age of three or even four. In the course of this time, he becomes acquainted with the world, and learns the names of the most common objects. We do not mean to discuss the boy at this stage, though we believe it is one of the most important. We may remark, however, that the child generally comes into the world with a magnificently developed head. It looks as if capable one day of the highest intellectual achievements. And what is still more striking is, that the heads of savage children, whose fathers and mothers have all foreheads "villanously low," are as fine and full as are those of the children of the most civilized. This circumstance suggests a question in reference to the capabilities of the child, How far is a child's nature capable of being affected by education? Is there an inborn disposition which it is impossible to change materially? Or are all children just what they are made, by force of circumstances or by education? This question is a difficult one, and has been answered in various ways. Does not the fact that almost all (perhaps we should say *all*) the heads of children are equally fine, seem to intimate that all children come into the world with very fine capabilities? We believe there are other reasons for thinking so. We are exceedingly apt to say, when a boy cannot be managed, that he is unmanageable, which merely means, that he is unmanageable by us. And so when we find a boy that we cannot improve, we are apt to infer that he cannot be improved. Hence we are inclined to the conclusion that boys

bring their tempers and their abilities along with them. But if we can give satisfactory reasons for that which others are in the habit of attributing to nature, we feel disposed to advance still farther, and say that even those cases which baffle us will yet, in the course of time, meet with a satisfactory explanation. Now this is exactly what Benecke has done. He shews (most conclusively to us) that there is in the infant only what we may call an original power. It is not memory, nor judgment, nor any one faculty, but simply an original power of mind. This, he allows, may be different in its intensity and fineness in different children to a certain extent, but the difference cannot be reckoned great at first. This original power the child uses. It makes its first sensuous intuition, which as speedily fades away; it makes another and another, until at length it is able to retain one of these intuitions. This becomes the first act of memory. Then he remembers something else, and so on. In this way Benecke enters into the genesis of all the powers of the mind, and he lets us see come forth from this original power, undefinable and undefined, all the powers or faculties of the soul. He denies, indeed, that they ought to be called faculties. We have not one memory, he says, but many; not one judgment, but many; and both memories and judgments are the activities of the one indivisible mind, or original power of mind. We may take an early opportunity of explaining his theory more fully; it is invaluable in bringing before us the powers of a boy in operation. At present we state our agreement with him, in believing that the nature of the boy is full of the largest capabilities, and may be moulded almost to any extent. This is philosophically true. But how far is it practically true? Now, the circumstances that it should be philosophically true is of immense encouragement to all of us; in fact, it opens up to us an immensely wide field of usefulness. Yet, at the same time, we find, when we look at the question from a practical point of view, that there is altogether a different side. Jean Paul, at the commencement of his *Levana*, has very cleverly and very beautifully given both sides. He very humourously puts into the mouth of a teacher a speech, in which it is shewn to demonstration that all education turns out in the end to be a matter of no consequence. And the same teacher delivers another speech, in which it is made equally plain that the educator is most powerful. The educator finds his powers at fault, because there are so many other influences at work. The spirit of the age is the great teacher of all. It impresses itself on every child, and it acts continually and

unconsciously. The thousand influences that surround the child are its educators: the men it sees, the people who only accidentally talk to it, its own playfellows, its games, its walks, and innumerable other occurrences and circumstances, mould and form the character; so that, though we were to prove that originally children were very nearly equal, the difference would soon become immense by the play of circumstances. Hence the Caffre child will grow a Caffre man, will roam about his native woods, delight in stealing and squatting, and will have no higher ideas than his savage grandfather. Thus the Roman Catholic child of Italy will become an Italian Roman Catholic man; and thus most of us grow up Protestants in this country, with diversities of opinion, sect, and prejudice, just as our forefathers had. Now, this is all true *within certain limits*, but only within certain limits. It is equally true, that earnest educators have impressed the stamp of their own high minds upon their scholars and that changes in generations take place almost solely in consequence of the impulses that have been given to education by great and good minds, or great and bad minds. From this slight notice, therefore, of the nature of a boy, as we see him in his first stage, we are inclined to be full of hope; to feel that, though in many cases circumstances may be too strong for us, in many other cases we may fashion and mould these circumstances, and at the same time act with the whole of our own power, so as to educe out of the child, the manly, honest, and noble man.

We come now to the next stage. Benecke places it at from three to seven years of age. I should be inclined to extend the period to a later age than seven years. Perhaps if we were to seek for the *one* most characteristic trait of this age, we should find it in Goethe's divisions of his model school in "Wilhelm Meister." There were three classes of scholars in the school. The first class had their arms across their breast, and looked joyfully towards heaven. These were learning reverence towards God and those above them, reverence being the one thing which Goethe says does not come with a boy into the world. The boy has naturally fear (*furcht*), but honour-fear (*ehrfurcht*), reverence, that which is the most essential requisite to true manhood, he has not. The boys, then, of the age from three to seven have a full and perfect sense of the superiority of the men who surround them. They are themselves small, not half the size of their parents, and they look up to these as to superhuman beings, if we may be allowed to interpret their thoughts—as to gods, indeed, whose will is absolute and whose

power has no bounds. We may have some conception ourselves of their notions, if we were to suppose that we were continually surrounded by a race of beings twelve or fourteen feet high, with wills and minds proportionately strong, only our conception does not realise the exact state of matters, for the child has no power of spiritual valuing, he estimates things and people by appearances, not by reality. We can honour a little and ugly man, if he bears a noble soul and a far-reaching intellect, but the child cannot. He is completely the slave of his sensuous impressions; he is guided in his valuations by his eyes and his ears, and his other senses; and his thoughts can scarcely be called judgments yet, but rapid, and for the most part, fading impressions. Now the treatment of the child seems to us to be regulated by these two considerations—that he has absolute reliance on his educator and absolute need of his assistance, and at the same time his whole existence is a sensuous one, soon to pass, however, if proper care is taken, into a higher stage of being. Here, in fact, we have a young being, acted on by multitudinous influences which he cannot understand or control, and beside him is his educator, to whom he looks up with the most profound fear or respect. What has the educator to do but, in as far as in him lies, to mould the circumstances so as that they shall act beneficially on the child. Now it so happens that for the most part the circumstances do not require to be moulded. All that the educator has to do, then, is simply to leave the child as much as possible to himself, to let his powers gradually unfold themselves. Perhaps there is no greater evil done to children than the care certain people take over them. They continually correct them when there is nothing to correct, instruct them when they can instruct themselves more successfully, and try to amuse them when they are far more sure to find the right kind of amusement for themselves.

If we look at the nature of children in this stage, we shall find that their whole life is a life of enjoyment, that each hour runs in golden sands, that each bubble which holds their dear little souls are radiant to them with the brightest colours, and that, though there are showers occasionally, they occur only to give a deeper hue of green to the perpetual green of their sunny days. Then these days seem to them eternal. A child's hour is a little eternity; a future period, however near to us it may seem, looms far in the distance to him. His conceptions of things are equally indefinite. It has been clearly proved that the eyes have in themselves, or in their powers, no power to measure distance. To an

eye acting for the first time, a star infinitely distant seems not farther off than the nose. And the eyes really require long time and practice before they can have anything like a clear and precise notion of distances. Children, consequently, have exceedingly indistinct notions of distances. Hence the truth of the pretty lines of Hood:—

"I remember, I remember,
The fir-trees dark and high,
I used to think their slender tops
Were close against the sky:
It was a childish ignorance,
But now 'tis little joy,
To know I'm farther off from heaven,
Than when I was a boy."

This indistinctness pervades all the operations of their mind. They seem to be as careless or as ignorant of form as of distance. They have no delight in anything nice, minute, or delicate. Broad masses of colours, and large shapes of things, are as acceptable to them as the most delicate colouring or the most finished workmanship. And along with all this there is the most complete anthropomorphizing. The child dwells in a fairy-land where birds and trees talk, where stones have souls and can listen; in fact, where there is no lifeless thing at all. In the early stage, too, of this period, when the mind of the child is completely under the power of sense, the child finds continual amusement for himself; his senses at once seek their own suitable gratification, and his hours or days never hang weary on his hands. He is restless, ever active, ever enjoying, and living in an eternal present of smiles and delights. When the child begins to get free from the purely sensuous influences, we find a marked difference. The impulses from external nature fail, and the impulses from within are not strong enough. He has now to search for amusement; he has to be directed often what he has to do, and he thankfully receives any contributions we can make to his happiness. This forms the commencement of our third stage.

Such is the nature of the child. Let us glance now at what we have to do with him. First, then, we must set out with the principle that Love is to be the grand power used by us. All nature smiles on him, his whole being is full of delight. Why should we not shew ourselves in the same gay dress to him? In fact, love is the only proper element for him. As yet he has no *strength* in him, he has no power to withstand our *frowns*, his sensuous nature simply recoils with horror from scowls, he can do nothing but flee from them. He clings to his educator, he twines his little arms

round his teacher, and if his caresses are pushed off, he falls down cowed and unable to rise. This clinging state of the child, too, must be remembered in all his training. Nothing at this stage must be imposed on him but what there is almost certainty that he will accomplish. Defeat cannot stir him up, it merely prostrates him. The whole path of life on which he is to walk must be spread with velvet, that his tiny feet may not be irritated by rubbing against the smallest pebbles. By this, however, we are very far from meaning that the child is to be coddled and coaxed and petted. Very far from this. Its path is not smoothed in this way, but frightfully roughened. If the love is not mixed with judgment, if it is not true, deep, and *unselfish* love, anxious to accomplish the best ends, the results will be very sad. For almost all petting is an appeal to the lower passions of the child, generally involving entire ignorance of the child's nature, and creating a deep and lasting evil by a momentary pleasure. Let us give an example. A mother orders her child to keep from going into a particular part of the garden; the child goes; she becomes angry with him, and drags him into the house; the child cries, and to appease him she gives him a piece of sugar. Now here, first, the mother should have given no such command, unless there was an absolute necessity for it, and unless she could not have prevented the child's going into it by any other means. A useless command is a very dangerous thing, though people, when they have the power of commanding, often find difficulty in restraining their tongues, these unruly members, from hasty orders. Ten to one the child was urged on to the garden by a sensuous influence far stronger than he had any power to resist, while at the same time the command had probably made such a slight impression on his mind that it was totally forgotten, and forgotten too without any blame on the child's part. The angry look was therefore quite undeserved. It was unhappiness caused without reason. But worse follows. Of all the senses, the taste is the most gross. The child derives far more enjoyment from his eyes or his ears, as long as no perversion has taken place. But the mother, instead of appealing to either of these senses, appeals to one which will give the boy a bad habit and will tend to lower his mind. If she had given him some large piece of blue paper, or blue glass, or some shapeless piece of wood, or some sand, and sent him to amuse himself with that, in fact turn his mind away from his sorrow by some object appealing to the eye, sufficient for the purpose, she would have helped on the boy's development, and effected her own purpose more satisfactorily.

We cannot go into all the modes of treatment which would result from the observations we have made. The subject is far too wide. But there is one remark which we must make. We have said the whole life of the child is an exaggerated one. Nothing is seen in its right proportions. As a consequence of this, the child will fail to give an exact and accurate account of what you ask him, and hence the great care we must exercise, before we suspect a boy of intentional falsehood. Besides his tendency to exaggerate, there is likewise his difficulty of expression. A man takes a whole lifetime before he finds full and exact language for the ideas that fill his mind; and many men never attain the power at all. How much more unlikely it is that a boy will be able to express exactly what he really wishes to say. These two facts ought to make us wait till we have clear and indubitable proof before we accuse a boy of lying. This is true of boys in the third stage. When the exaggeration has vanished from their minds, there still remains the incapacity of expression. I used to wonder often why certain boys in my class cried, when there was no reason for it, and when they knew that their crying was displeasing to me; but though I may not be correct in all cases, yet I have no doubt that in most the tears were an involuntary substitute for the words, or perhaps vexation at the difficulty of opening the lips and uttering the *thought*.

We shall now take a glance at the capabilities of the child in the matter of *instruction*. At first sight we see that his body, with all its powers, is the main thing to be cultivated, and that this cultivation must never be *forced* on the child, but must, as it were, go along with, and be among, the sensuous enjoyments of which his life is composed. The body first must be attended to. The child is growing. His life is at present vegetative; and full and fair play must be given to him, that he vegetate well. And he will vegetate well, if full liberty be given him. Genteel people are extremely apt to have too great a liking for seeing their children look neat and smart, and so, dressing them very gaily, they send them out with servants to take a walk, and this is all they do for the health of their children. Nothing could be more absurd. To ask children to take care of their clothes is asking an impossibility for them, unless the nature of children is taken out of them in some perverse way. They must romp, like savages, run everywhere; mingle with all, like democrats of the reddest hue, and, through continual employment of their own fancies, catch health and freshness from the breezes. This is

the first requisite. A sound body is an invaluable blessing. It is true, there are many instances of great minds grappling with the infirmities of weak bodies; but it is equally true that sound health tends to sound views and sound feelings. Here, then, there is no interference required. Plato, however, is of opinion that we should interfere to some extent. Now is the time, according to him, to teach the little feet to move harmoniously in the dance; and from the earliest age the ear should be filled with melodious sounds. We agree with him, only again we have to say, that it must be by way of amusement; they must not be forced on the child. Plato speaks only of dancing and music; but the principle really goes to the foundation of the whole instruction of the child. The boy is still sensuous. His senses must be trained; and if his senses are well trained, the education of his intellect for this stage is accomplished. Still, all this is to be done in such a way that the child shall be unconscious of his learning; he must take it in, as he takes in air. We must so arrange matters that his mind shall be amply supplied, while at the same time he will be simply following his own fancy. The eye of course is the principal sense to be educated. It is the highest; and it can be exercised on the whole of external nature. Now seems to us peculiarly the time for the commencement of the study of natural history. The child has a real liking for an acquaintance with the objects. He delights to hear of lions and tigers; he can watch a mouse with all the eagerness with which politicians watch the fate of empires. Even flowers are loved beings to him. His sympathies are thus co-extensive with the whole field of nature. In speaking of natural history, however, we must guard against the idea that we mean at all the *terms* of natural history. No one need trouble him with names. That is an appeal to another faculty altogether. Let him see facts; let him search out facts in every direction, in every play, in every stroll, wherever he is, and wherever he is taken; and let there be his educator beside him to awaken the desire for knowledge, if it will at all need to be awakened, and to satisfy in some measure the desire thus awakened.

Such ought to be the boy's taking in of knowledge. There is another part of instruction, the fitting him for giving it out. Now it seems to us that there is no hurry in this matter. If the child's heart and head are full of facts and desires, he will learn in time enough to express himself clearly. Perhaps there is no mistake made by parents greater than that of pushing on their children to attainments beyond their years. Every

thing in its place. You may hurry him on to outward appearance, and he may appear for a time a prodigy; but there is a great chance that his mind will, like the bodies of some boys, after they have taken a very rapid shoot, pine away and die of atrophy. This is peculiarly true of learning to read. This acquirement ought not to come until the child's senses have been pretty well trained, and for a considerable time it ought to be pure amusement. It ought not to come too early, because it is quite useless. That is reason enough, not to mention Dr Brigham's assertion, that too early reading weakens the brain of a child, and may materially affect his constitution. A child should not be set to learn his lessons regularly till he is six or seven. Long before this time, by playing at the game of letters and at the game of reading, for both may be made a game, he may have a tolerable notion of letters and small words.

We hasten to the third stage of boy-life. The boy has now got through his faith in his educator or educators a bright view of the world, and a little strength. He has got accustomed to things as they are; he is no longer continually in danger of stumbling on this hobgoblin or that, and so he marches out into a larger sphere. His respect for his superiors has not vanished, but it is not so almighty in him. And another feeling arises: he sees other boys around him, he finds that he has a nature to go out to these boys, and so he enters boy-society, he submits himself to the laws of boy-society, and he is prepared to endure a considerable amount of buffeting in his intercourse with his fellows. This period Benecke places between the years of seven and fourteen. I think it lasts till a later period very frequently with us, though of course there are great differences in different boys.

At this stage the boys begin to have a more determinate character. You can now perceive the tendencies of the boy's nature. If we had space, we could divide them into classes. There is the boy all intellect, keen and acute; there is the tricky boy, the diligent boy, the clever boy, the slow boy, the lazy boy, the sly boy, the sheepish boy, the stupid boy, the boy all muscle; in fact, a thousand varieties. And it is of great consequence to remember this. Each boy has now his own temper, his own character, his own capabilities; and if we are to deal with them as educators, we must know each one separately and distinctly, study each one in all his phases, and act according to the knowledge we have thus acquired by experience. At the same time, it is of great consequence to remember that the boy has

not a fixed, immovable character, but is passing through a phase of life in which we may exert the most powerful influences. If we keep this in mind, we shall not be rash in our despair of a boy's capabilities or morals, and we shall readily and willingly pardon faults which we can scarcely expect him to avoid. The boy is not only passing through one great phase, but through many smaller phases. At first he bears in him many traces of the weakness of his previous state—his faith in others, and his need of their help are very strong; but as he rubs against other boys, he comes to trust himself more. Then his relation to his superiors varies. He is no longer inclined to yield absolute and unwavering obedience in everything. His nature revolts against tyranny, and he struggles to come nearer and nearer to something like an equality. Hence boys display in their intercourse with older people a great deal of affectation. They have not yet clearly ascertained their position; they don't know how to act in their new circumstances; and they ape and aim at what they think will render them worthy of the society of experienced and intelligent men. Boys are often praised for their simplicity; and the praise is just, in so far as boys make the most simple remarks and do the most simple deeds, because they are unacquainted with the true relations (or as we should perhaps often justly call them, the *false* relations) of real life. But acute observers have noticed, and the observation is put beautifully in Thackeray's "Esmond," that boys, most especially towards the hobbledohy age, are seldom altogether true to themselves, that there is an unnatural straining after an undefined goal, which is nothing else than affectation.

The great object of education at this stage of the boy's progress is to educe *strength*. The boy feels so himself. He desires the society of those above him, and he infinitely prefers boy-companions to girls, while girls long for the society of boys at the same age. He has nothing of the tender about him. He has not as yet learned to respect those below him. He has, as Goethe divides it, honour, fear, reverence for those above him, reverence for those around him, but no reverence for those below him. This comes last, and when the youth is passing into the man.

His idea of strength, however, is not the same as that of a man. He resembles not the men of our day, but the men of the Homeric poems, and we find him gradually passing from this phase into admiration of the men of the Greek and Roman civilisation. At first, bodily strength and bodily prowess attract the eyes of boys, deeds of corporeal daring are their envy and their de-

light. He agrees entirely with the Homeric sentiment:—

“For there is not greater glory to a man, while he’s on earth,
Than the feats which he can do with speedy foot or sturdy hand,”

There may be a few exceptions. There may be some who, perhaps owing to unusual circumstances, or to an early development, have caught the idea of mental superiority. But this comes to most boys only gradually. We notice in them a progress from the idea of *virtus*, *manliness* as consisting of bodily prowess, to the *virtus* or manliness which is built on true virtue and goodness.

It is the part of the educator to educe this latter manliness. And it so happens that now the boy’s mind has reached a point at which this is practicable. He has now come into contact with his companions, he has shared *their* emotions, he has a fellow-feeling with them, and he has thus become capable of observing the movements of their minds, and after that the movements of his own. He is now to a certain extent capable of comprehending the spiritual value of a thing, and he must now trust to his own estimates in many points. Now he begins to know what it is to be truthful, brave to endure, bold to meet danger, firm in his friendships, firm in his resolutions. Now he can form a proper self-respect, a proper estimate of his companions. And now is the time for the educator to guide him in all these. But this guidance must be of a particular nature. The boy is still to a considerable extent sensuous, and his powers of generalisation are comparatively feeble. We may consequently explain and explain to him, urge him and urge him, all to no purpose. He must *see* the deed, and then he will do it. Example is the great instructor. The good educator is the man of firm mind himself, the man of noble heart, who says little but does much. Language on practical subjects is to a boy tedious and wearisome, often unintelligible; action is clear and unmistakeable. We might explain to a boy for ever how to play a certain game, and he would very likely never think of playing it; but shew him practically how to do it, and he will at once imitate you. This is true of moral actions. And the boy with a true instinct catches the unconscious traits of a character rather than those pushed forward. When he knows a moral action is done in order to attract his attention, he rejects the lesson; but when he of his own accord notices a deed to which his attention is not invited, the effect is often powerful and lasting.

When we examine into the reason of this, we get a fact which is of the utmost consequence in


the instruction of the boy. What a boy does out of the pure impulse of his own nature, is invariably better done than when he acts under any other motive. Consequently the great aim of an educator in a boy’s instruction is to stir up the boy’s desire for knowledge and thought. Jean Paul has expressed this in his own beautiful language, in his *Titan*:—“Ah, how he yearned (even as in childhood we go from octavo to quarto, from quarto to folio, from folio to a book as great as the world, which is even the world)—ah, how he yearned already after the anticipated teachings and teachers. But the more, the better. Only hunger digests, only love fructifies, only the sigh of longing is the life-giving *aura seminalis* for the Orpheus-egg of the sciences. That ye do not consider, ye pedant-teachers, who give to the children the drink before ye give them the thirst, who, like some florists, place the ready-made varnish in the split stalk of the flowers and the foreign musk in their cup, instead of simply giving them the morning sun and the flower-earth; and who give to the young souls no quiet hours, but are for ever dunging and pruning and hacking about them under the very flower-dust of their blooming wine, contrary to all vineyard rules. Oh can you ever, when ye push them forth prematurely, and with unripe organs, into the great realm of truths and beauties, exactly as all of us to our sorrow crawl into beautiful nature with darkened senses and blunt ourselves against her, can ye ever recompense them with any thing for the great year, which they would have enjoyed, had they been able, when grown up, like the newly created Adam, to move about in this glorious spiritual universe with thirsty open senses? Therefore are those educated by you like the footpaths which in spring are the first to grow green, but afterwards wind through the blooming meadows yellow and trodden down.” Jean Paul, who was a schoolmaster himself, and had made a thorough study of boy-nature, seems to us to have expressed here the grand aim of the educator, and the frightful result of a wrong education. The boy’s powers are yet imperfect. It will be some time yet before his bodily powers cease giving. Let us take care that his mental powers also grow. He has before him the possibility of searching into the deepest truths, of being stirred up to the noblest emotions, of living a grand, unselfish, holy life. His youth is the period in which the seeds of all these are sown, and the great danger is, that the foolish educator will, to see how the seeds are growing, pull up the earth, uncover the seed to the sun, and the whole prospect of fruit be thus at the commencement completely destroyed.

In the intellectual education, as in the moral and physical, the great aim must be at this stage to give strength. The boy is soon to think and act for himself; education ought to help him really to think and act for himself, and to think and act nobly. And in this process we have also to let nature have her own course. By slow and sure steps the boy will rise to the thinking and active man. First, in the course of nature, as we have seen, he will employ his mind in observation, in the apprehension of individual objects by the senses, especially by the two noblest senses, sight and hearing. After he has made considerable progress in this, he will then attempt to reproduce what he has seen or heard without the presence of the object itself. And when he has thus fully

acquired the habit of representing sensible objects before him, he will pass to the regions of pure thought, he will begin to combine his individual experiences into notions, and these notions will become more and more abstract and general, as his power of thought increases. In the stage of progress at which we have arrived, the boy is specially employed with representations and notions. His mind is in a process of being trained for abstract thinking, or of dealing with purely spiritual matters. The means to be employed for this purpose we cannot now discuss. We have entered upon a very wide theme, which it would be rash to meddle with towards the close of an article, and therefore we break off for the present.

INSPECTION v. EXAMINATION.

[From Mr Matthew Arnold's General Report for 1863.]

 HE great school event of the year has of course been the introduction, in the latter half of it, of the new system of examinations prescribed by the Revised Code. I have not hitherto applied to your Lordships for any help in conducting these examinations in my district, but have, so far, accomplished them all myself, because I was anxious fully to observe their working. I have not to make any remarks upon their financial working, its effect upon schools, and its acceptability to managers. I confine myself entirely to their practical working as a system of school examinations, and to points in which they make the inspection of a school now a different matter from what it used to be formerly.

"It might have been wished and intended, perhaps, that the old inspection should take place just as before, and that the examination should be merely a new thing superadded to it. Practically this is not so, and I think, without a very large increase in the body of inspectors, and a strict discrimination of their separate kinds of function, it cannot be so; practically the old inspection tends, and I think will tend more and more, to disappear. I am speaking of the old inspection considered as an agency for testing and promoting the intellectual force of schools, not as an agency for testing and promoting their discipline and their good building, fitting, and so on. For their discipline and for their material suitability, the new system furnishes the same or

nearly the same means of care as the old one. For their intellectual force it furnishes no longer the same means of care, but a different one; I do not say a means of care less valuable or not more, valuable than that furnished by the old inspection, but a different one. It is important to point out this difference, in order that one undoubtedly useful sort of care which inspection used to provide for the intellectual progress of schools, but which it provides no longer, or in a much lesser degree than formerly, the managers may take measures to provide in some other way.

"Inspection under the old system meant something like the following. The inspector took a school class by class. He seldom heard each child in a class read, but he called out a certain number to read, picked at random as specimens of the rest; and when this was done he questioned the class with freedom, and in his own way, on the subjects of their instruction. As you got near the top of a good school these subjects became more numerous; they embraced English grammar, geography, and history, for each of which the inspector's report contained a special entry, and the examination then often acquired much variety and interest. The whole life and power of a class, the fitness of its composition, its handling by the teacher, were well tested; the inspector became well acquainted with them, and was enabled to make his remarks on them to the head teacher; and a powerful means of correcting, improving, and stimulating them was thus given. In the

hands of an able inspector—an inspector like Dr Temple, for instance (one may particularise Dr Temple without invidiousness, for he has ceased to be an inspector)—this means was an instrument of great force and value.

"The new examination groups the children by its standards, not by their classes; and however much we may strive to make the standards correspond with the classes, we cannot make them correspond at all exactly. The examiner, therefore, does not take the children in their own classes. The life and power of each class as a whole, the fitness of its composition, its handling by the teacher, he therefore does not test. He hears every child in the group before him read, and so far his examination is more complete than the old inspection. But he does not question them; he does not, as an examiner under the rule of the six standards, go beyond the three matters, reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the amount of these three matters which the standards themselves prescribe; and, indeed, the entries for grammar, geography, and history, have now altogether disappeared from the forms of report furnished to the inspector. The nearer, therefore, he gets to the top of the school the more does his examination, in itself, become an inadequate means of testing the real attainments and intellectual life of the scholars before him. Boys who have mastered vulgar fractions and decimals, who know something of physical science and geometry, a good deal of English grammar, of geography, and history, he hears read a paragraph, he sees write a paragraph, and work a couple of easy sums in the compound rules or practice. As a stimulus to the intellectual life of the school—and the intellectual life of a school is the intellectual life of its higher classes—this is as inefficient as if Dr Temple (to recur to him again for illustration), when he goes to inspect his fifth form, were just to hear each boy construe a sentence of delectus, conjugate one Latin verb, and decline two Greek substantives.

"I know that the aim and object of the new system of examination is not to develop the higher intellectual life of an elementary school, but to spread and fortify, in its middle and lower portions, the instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, supposed to be suffering. I am not contesting the importance of this subject, or the adequacy of the means offered by the new examination for attaining it. I am only pointing out the real value of a certain mode of operation on schools which the old inspection undoubtedly supplied, and which the new examination does not and by its nature cannot supply.

"It will be said that we must conjoin the old inspection with the new examination; undoubtedly we must so far as we can. But I think no one who is much acquainted with schools and examinations will imagine that we can do this at all completely. The whole school felt, under the old system, that the prime aim and object of the inspector's visit was, after insuring the fulfilment of certain sanitary and disciplinary conditions, to test and quicken the intellectual life of the school. The scholars' thoughts were directed to this object, the teacher's thoughts were directed to it, the inspector's thoughts were directed to it. The scholars and teacher co-operated therefore with the inspector in doing their best to reach it; they were anxious for his judgment on their highest progress, anxious to profit by this judgment after he was gone. At present the centre of interest for the school when the inspector visits it is changed. Scholars and teacher have their thoughts directed straight upon the new examination, which will bring, they know, such important benefit to the school if it goes well, and bring it such important loss if it goes ill. On the examination day they have not minds for anything else. If it were possible for the inspector to make the old inspection, unaltered so far as he was concerned, precede the new examination, it would no longer be the same inspection, for he would no longer have the children's spirit in it, and without this he could no longer make the same test of their intellectual life; he would no longer have the master's whole interest and attention in it, and without these he would no longer criticise and counsel with profit, and so be able to stimulate the school's intellectual life for the future. I think, if the peculiar valuable effect of the old inspection is to be retained, this inspection ought, on these grounds, to be disjoined from the new examination.

"But on other, and purely material grounds, it must be disjoined from it. The new examination is in itself a less exhausting business than the old inspection to the person conducting it; it does not make a call as that did upon his spirit and inventiveness; but it takes up much more time, it throws upon him a mass of minute detail, and severely tasks hand and eye to avoid mistakes. Few can know till they have tried what a business it is to enter in a close-ruled schedule, as an examination goes on, three marks for three different things against the names of 200 children whom one does not know from the other, without putting the wrong child's mark in the wrong place. Few can know how much delay and fatigue is unavoidably caused, before one can get one's 600 communications fairly accomplished, by difficulty of

access to children's places, difficulty in seeing clearly in the obscurer parts of the school-room, difficulty of getting children to speak out—sometimes of getting them to speak at all—difficulty of resisting, without feeling one's self inhuman, the appealing looks of master or scholars for a more prolonged trial of a doubtful scholar. Then there are inquiries and returns to be made by the inspector about log-book, portfolio, accounts, pupil-teacher's engagements and stipends, which had not to be made formerly. An inquiry has just been added respecting the means and position in life of school children's parents, to discover whether they are proper objects of state aid. All this makes the new examination a business of so much time and labour, as to deprive the inspector of the needful freshness and spirit (to conduct the old inspection properly needed a good deal of spirit) for joining with it, on the same occasion, the old inspection. If I insist on this, it is that I may exhort managers themselves to supply, in case of need, a mode of stimulus to their schools which was very useful to them. The clergy, who

are the usual managers of national schools, could probably supply what is wanted without difficulty; and I think the managers of British and Wesleyan schools, with a little exertion and good-will, might find means to supply it to their schools also.

"I have been struck by one result of the practical working of the new examinations which I am sure your Lordships never intended. I mean the peculiar severity with which they tell upon the younger classes in a school owing to the timidity natural to this age. When a boy of eleven or twelve years of age is so shy that he cannot open his mouth before a stranger, one may without harshness say that he ought to have been taught better and refuse him his grant; but when a child of seven is in this predicament one can hardly, without harshness, say the same thing, and to refuse him his grant for a timidity which is not, in his case, a school fault, seems to be going beyond the intention of your Lordships, who designed the refusal of your grants to be a punishment for school faults."



TENNYSON'S NEW POEMS.

BY this time most of our readers will be tolerably well acquainted with "Enoch Arden," either through long extracts, or through a personal reading of the poem. We look on it as the best poem in the volume, and well worthy of the Laureate's fame. The description of the scenery in the desert island is as fine a piece of word-painting as can be met with in our language; and the narrative of the last days of Enoch affects the mind most powerfully.

The second story, "Aylmer's Field," is full of those difficulties of construction and thought, which have rendered Tennyson's poems *caviare* to a large mass of readers, whether they will confess it or not. The moral of it is the same as that which lies at the bottom of several of Tennyson's best poems:

"Cursed be the social ties that sin against the strength of youth."

We do not intend at present to criticise any of the new poems which appear in the volume, but to lay before our readers one or two which deserve the attention of teachers and thinkers. The first one we extract is allegorical, and under the

name of a flower we have the launching of a new idea into the world, its reception, and the treatment of its originator.

"THE FLOWER.

"Once in a golden hour
I cast to earth a seed
Up there came a flower,
The people said, a weed.

"To and fro they went
Thro' my garden-bower,
And muttering discontent
Cursed me and my flower.

"Then it grew so tall
It wore a crown of light,
But thieves from o'er the wall
Stole the seed by night.

"Sow'd it far and wide
By every town and tower,
Till all the people cried
'Splendid is the flower.'

"Read my little fable:
He that runs may read.
Most can raise the flowers now,
For all have got the seed

"And some are pretty enough,
And some are poor indeed;
And now again the people
Call it but a weed."

The second poem which we extract is also allegorical. Its meaning is more difficult to see, not in its general intention, but in its minute particularities.

"THE VOYAGE.

"We left behind the painted buoy
That tosses at the harbour-mouth;
And madly danced our hearts with joy,
As fast we fled to the South:
How fresh was every sight and sound
On open main or winding shore!
We knew the merry world was round,
And we might sail for evermore.

"Warm broke the breeze against the brow,
Dry sang the tackle, sang the sail:
The Lady's-head upon the prow
Caught the shrill salt, and sheer'd the gale.
The broad seas swell'd to meet the keel,
And swept behind; so quick the run,
We felt the good ship shake and reel,
We seem'd to sail into the Sun!

"How oft we saw the Sun retire,
And burn the threshold of the night,
Fall from his Ocean-lane of fire,
And sleep beneath his pillar'd light!
How oft the purple-skirted robe
Of twilight slowly downward drawn,
As thro' the slumber of the globe
Again we dash'd into the dawn!

"New stars all night above the brim
Of waters lighten'd into view;
They climb'd as quickly, for the rim
Changed every moment as we flew.
Far ran the naked moon across
The houseless ocean's heaving field,
Or flying shone, the silver boss
Of her own halo's dusky shield;

"The peaky islet shifted shapes,
High towns on hills were dimly seen,
We past long lines of Northern capes
And dewy Northern meadows green.
We came to warmer waves, and deep
Across the boundless east we drove,
Where those long swells of breaker sweep
The nutmeg rocks and isles of clove.

"By peaks that flamed, or, all in shade,
Gloom'd the low coast and quivering brine
With ashy rains, that spreading made
Fantastic plume or sable pine;

By sands and steaming flats, and floods
Of mighty mouth, we scudded fast,
And hills and scarlet-mingled woods
Glow'd for a moment as we past.

"O hundred shores of happy climes,
How swiftly stream'd ye by the bark!
At times the whole sea burn'd, at times
With wakes of fire we tore the dark;
At times a carven craft would shoot
From havens hid in fairy bowers,
With naked limbs and flowers and fruit,
But we nor paused for fruit nor flowers.

"For one fair Vision ever fled
Down the waste waters day and night,
And still we follow'd where she led,
In hope to gain upon her flight.
Her face was evermore unseen,
And fixt upon the far sea-line;
But each one murmur'd 'O my Queen,
I follow till I make thee mine.'

"And now we lost her, now she gleam'd
Like Fancy made of golden air,
Now nearer to the prow she seem'd
Like Virtue firm, like Knowledge fair,
Now high on waves that idly burst
Like Heavenly Hope she crown'd the sea,
And now, the bloodless point reversed,
She bore the blade of Liberty.

"And only one among us—him
We pleased not—he was seldom pleased:
He saw not far: his eyes were dim;
But ours he swore were all diseased.
'A ship of fools' he shriek'd in spite,
'A ship of fools' he sneer'd and wept.
And overboard one stormy night
He cast his body, and on we swept.

"And never sail of ours was furl'd,
Nor anchor dropt at eve or morn;
We loved the glories of the world,
But laws of nature were our scorn;
For blasts would rise and rave and cease,
But whence were those that drove the sail
Across the whirlwind's heart of peace,
And to and thro' the counter-gale?

"Again to colder climes we came,
For still we follow'd where she led:
Now mate is blind and captain lame,
And half the crew are sick or dead.
But blind or lame or sick or sound
We follow that which flies before:
We know the merry world is round,
And we may sail for evermore."

We submit this poem to our readers in the hopes

that some of them will endeavour to find a key to its various statements.

The last poem we quote is an exquisite little lullaby, which was published before its appearance in the present volume.

"What does little birdie say
In her nest at peep of day?
Let me fly, says little birdie,
Mother, let me fly away.
Birdie, rest a little longer,
Till the little wings are stronger.

So she rests a little longer,
Then she flies away.

"What does little baby say,
In her bed at peep of day?
Baby says, like little birdie,
Let me rise and fly away.
Baby, sleep a little longer,
Till the little limbs are stronger.
If she sleeps a little longer,
Baby too shall fly away."



GRAMMAR SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

A STRONG feeling is abroad, that the light which has recently been let in upon the internal arrangements of our public schools, might not less advantageously be brought to bear

on that large and useful class of schools to which our heading is designed to draw attention. Eton is a kind of Corinth, which parents of moderate means, living in country towns, must look with a "non cuivis homini" feeling. But they may naturally desire to console themselves with the thought, that they have at least a tolerable substitute near their own doors, and hence they, not without justice, complain that it is somewhat hard in our legislators to confine their reforms and remedial measures to those august (shall we say?) seats of learning, which have the privilege of educating the governing class, and to neglect to extend the same wholesome supervision to schools in which the children of the most respectable of their constituents are commonly educated; schools which exist in most country towns, certainly in most cities and boroughs; schools often well endowed, and not seldom possessing able and learned men for their head-masters. It is easy enough to find the root of much failure as to results at public schools in the unlimited supplies of money which wealthy parents lavish on their children, in the consequent luxury, and in the absence of incentives to emulation and industry. But where the existence, at any rate the well-being, of a place of education depends upon "work" being the order of the day (as is the case of our grammar schools), it appears to us that it is of far more consequence that commissions and reports should exercise their ameliorating influence. Indeed, it strikes us that the Public Schools Commission, if it did not begin at the wrong end, has at any rate left untouched that part of the English school

system, which most of all would repay inquiry and inspection. It has not extended to schools which, if acted on by the influence of a Royal Commission, might become at once important feeders to our great public schools, and also fulfil the purpose of their founders, in securing to fit alumni, trained up to the time of going to college within their own walls, those scholarships and exhibitions which are the just ambition of boys, who without such help must forego the advantage of a university course. No one, inexperienced in the hindrances which fetter head-masters of grammar schools, can possibly imagine how small are the successes for which he is constrained to be thankful. A boy comes out well in the examinations of the Law Association, or of the Veterinary College, or perhaps in the lower examinations of the Civil Service. But very commonly the exhibitions of grammar schools are unfilled, or filled by youths not *bona fide* educated at such schools; or, at any rate, filled by very ordinary holders, by reason of total lack of competition. And this is owing to the undue hindrances which clog the working of grammar schools, and which, far more than the existence of such large central schools or colleges as Marlborough and Cheltenham, keep back from fame and repute a body of men who have as legitimate an ambition, as much zeal and energy, and it may be as great capacity, as their more fortunate fellow-educators. There is no reason why these hindrances should continue to exist; and it is in the hope of doing somewhat towards laying them open, and indicating the path of wholesome reform, that we venture one or two remarks, grounded upon a past experience.

The chief hindrance to the effective working of many grammar schools is surely the vicious system of appointing incompetent trustees. At a period

when reform was much more the rage than it is now, the Charity Commissioners attempted some measure of inquiring into the management, trusts, and endowments of country grammar schools. They gave facilities for approaching the Court of Chancery with petitions for new schemes; and in theory there was a likelihood that good might arise from the appointment of townsmen, immediately interested, to trusteeships, which had heretofore been neglected or abused by wealthy landed proprietors, indifferent to the benefits of such schools. In some instances these last had been unable to give an account of their stewardships. Moneys had been lost, or diverted from their proper channels. Scholarships had lapsed, or been forgotten. There was a fair ground for petitioning for local government. The claim was allowed, and granted. But unfortunately the change was in many cases for the worse. The Lord Chancellor, or the Master of the Rolls, had to nominate the first trustees under a new scheme. He either accepted the list put into his hands by the borough member, who chanced to hold his own political views, or else consulted that authority as to the fitness of the men whom he himself proposed to nominate. Thus politics, rather than education, intelligence, or administrative talent, became the qualification for trusteeship, and cases are quoted where M.P.s. so effectually nominated whom they would, and erased the names of those whom they would not, with an eye to party purposes, that they could say with a chuckle of their amended list, "Now we have knocked all the brains out of it." What followed? That in many grammar school towns men notoriously partizans, notoriously illiterate, notoriously incapable, form the majority of the governing body of the school. The parochial clergyman, with the legal or medical man, form a powerless minority, growing weary of constant defeats, and of lifting ineffectual protests against jobbery, narrowness, and mismanagement. They almost necessarily find themselves estranged more or less from the deserving head-master, whom they cannot effectually support, and who looks to them alone for a countenance, which they are less and less able to give, by reason of opposition from their own body. Schools under such an "incubus" are not schools to which the feeble minority of which we speak, can safely send their own children, with prospect of advantage; and hence the link between the master and his educated trustees becomes more slender and brittle, and he subsides into a soured and disappointed pedagogue, doing by routine the duties of an office which, if he were duly supported, would have led to honour, credit, and advance-

ment. We believe the appointment of unfit trustees to be the head and front of all the evils attaching to our grammar-school system. It is a many headed hydra. One pest after another springs out of it, and there is no cutting off the baneful supply. For example, suppose the fear of corruption made public, or the fact of equality of parties has placed a competent person in the office of head-master, there might be hope of his influence availing to bring the school to a sound condition, through suggestion of measures of reform and purgation to the body specially appointed to look to the school's interests. But the experience of many bears witness to an opposite result. We could name several instances in which the good proposed by a new head-master has been neutralised by the hesitation of trustees to support him in the supersession of incompetent under-masters, and this, too, when the power of supersession is vested in these very trustees, and they have themselves been foremost in pointing out to the head-master the unfitness of his assistants. It need scarcely be said that an appointment of a new head is mostly the crisis of a school. Then, if ever, is the opportunity for concurrent reformations. Then, if pensions or *congés*, as the case may deserve, could be instrumental in removing under-masters who do but cumber the ground, there might come a tide that would lead such school on to fortune. But the under-master has a vote for the borough; or his father had one, and always voted for the blue or yellow, according as the case may be. He must be upheld in the teeth of the head-master, and to the detriment of the school. If the principal, despairing of local justice, petitions the Court of Chancery, he does at the peril of his peace, and very probably at a large pecuniary cost. This is no imaginary case. In our mind's eye, there is a not unknown Royal Grammar School in the West of England. Its prospects were marred for years, because the tardiness of trustees to remove a notoriously incapable under-master drove families away from a town which was admirably calculated to become a centre of education, by reason of its healthy situation, its rich exhibitions, and its agreeable neighbourhood. Masters, parents, boys, all save the trustees, saw the evil and its remedy. For two years these latter shrunk from their manifest duty, and only at last did justice to the foundation, in which they ought to have felt an equal interest with the head-master, when the scandal became excessive, and the fact that the head-master was supplying the room of a useless second master, by paying expensive private assistants, notorious. It is true that, when they did act, they wisely allowed the

head-master to have a voice in the selection of his successor, thus for a time placing the school on a proper footing. But who, that has experience of trustees of town grammar schools, can doubt that, on future vacancies, the old evil may be revived; testimonials ever so excellent, degrees ever so distinguished, claims ever so cogent, deliberately set aside for the sake of party politics, old acquaintances; in short, any or every cause which ought not to have weight in the appointment of masters. We know one under-master, chosen to teach classics and mathematics, whose chief recommendation was, that he was an expert fisherman. Another attained a like post, of whom the best that his friends among the trustees could urge was, that he was a good musician, and would be an addition to the town tea-parties. And so long as trustees are not men of refinement and high education, such reasons as these will be more cogent in their eyes than those which alone ought to weigh with them in selection.

It will be said then, What substitute do you propose? We are aware that our solution is one which, in many eyes, will meet with but little favour. Theoretically, it is liable to grave objection. Practically, however, we are persuaded that it would be found to answer. Head-masters should be appointed by the Crown, or, if we are required to be precise, by the minister of public education or instruction. Under-masters should be nominated and selected by the head-master. Grammar schools officered in this way, should be subject to Government inspection, and should be entitled, if satisfactory to the Government inspectors, to those advantages at the hands of the State which Mr Matthew Arnold has specified in his able volume on the subject. The action of inspector should not be confined to the mere teaching and internal management of the schools. There should be inspection of the estates, moneys, &c., which go to maintain the school. It would then be impossible that well-endowed schools, with an available surplus, should go on from year to year unprovided with adequate play-grounds, and blocked in by wretched cottages and hovels, which at present trustees profess to have no power to buy up for the good of the school, when they come into the market. Both internally and externally, schools would be the better for such a change. Why should Crown appointments to schools be more objectionable, or less successful in result, than Crown nominations to Regius Professorships, which we believe are, for the most part, unimpeachable? Annual inspection we should insist upon, as keeping in check head-masters so appointed, watching their subordinate appointments,

and aiding their efforts in the right direction from time to time. We can safely say that we have known schools to which no boon could have been greater than such a change, which, instead of involving bondage to a new master, in the Crown or Privy Council, would have appeared an extrication from the rusty fetters of an inactive, ignorant, prejudiced local government. The argument that political ends might be served by the introduction of Crown influence into schools is idle and worthless. There is rarely an election to the masterships, under the present state of things, when the whole matter does not turn upon the question of Whig or Tory. The change we advocate, too, would have the advantage of introducing the principle of responsibility, which is utterly wanting in local trusteeship. A Member of Parliament may challenge an improper Crown appointment. Wrong done by incompetent trustees can only be righted by tedious and uncertain legal processes.

But, if we may not have Crown-appointed head-masters, with staffs nominated by themselves, and amenable to, as well as aided by Government inspection, let us at least have competent trustees. Let there be a literary qualification for the office. Let it be impossible that, when a master, in bitter irony, hands a Xenophon to a trustee, whom he suspects of deficient scholarship, any such trustee should be found to sit through the examination, sagely gazing upon the book held upside down in his hands. Let the fates of grammar schools be at least in the disposal of educated men, clergymen of university standing, country gentlemen of like qualifications, and those few townsmen who have achieved a college degree, or come up to some kindred standard. Inquiry will prove that, where such is the constitution of bodies of trustees, the schools are better managed and more flourishing, than where men of a lower grade and lower views are the arbiters of a school's destinies. It is surely high time to utilize the many noble institutions founded by the liberality of our forefathers, but seemingly to little purpose, through the mismanagement and supineness of the present age. This may be done by an extension of the Public Schools' Commission to grammar schools also; and we are much mistaken if a result of such extension would not be the restoration of our leading grammar schools to their proper functions, to wit, the office of thoroughly grounding boys in grammar and its kindred studies, and that also of preparing them to compete successfully for the scholarships and exhibitions appropriated to their particular foundation at the universities.

Correspondence.

WHO WAS JUNIUS?

SIR,—The enclosed paragraph was cut out of a provincial newspaper. I very seldom see the *Daily Telegraph*, and therefore I cannot say whether any further correspondence followed on the subject. I shall be glad, however, to learn your own opinion, or that of any of your readers, upon the alleged discovery. Lord Macaulay, in his *Essay on Warren Hastings*, seems to think Philip Francis was Junius.

BETA.

"THE AUTHORSHIP OF 'JUNIUS.'—The following letter appears in the *Daily Telegraph*:—"Sir,—It may not be uninteresting to many of your readers to know that, whilst arranging some papers for Mrs Pyves, preparatory to her case coming on in November next in the Probate Court, I accidentally found, among other manuscripts, the following;—"London, Jan. 3. 1772.—Lord Chatham hereby agrees to in-

demnify Doctor James Wilmot for all risks and dangers that the said Doctor J. Wilmot may be subject to in the continuation of the letters of Junius. Authorising the payment of £170 to J. W. on account of printing and publishing the work. (Signed) CHATHAM." Also there was a paper or memorandum, written on a leaf in a pocket-book or what appears to have been a pocket-book leaf:—"I consent that Dr Wilmot may . . . of letters of Philo-Junius.—J. DUNNING. 1771." The foregoing seems to authenticate the article or the subject of "Junius" in the *Panorama* for November 1818, which was read by some gentleman at the British Museum a few months since. It is asserted also in this magazine that Mr Woodfall, the printer recognised the initials "J. W.," as the author of "Junius," and that he also received a gratuity from Lord Warwick in order to meet the expenses for printing."

Notices of Books.

A Practical Introduction to Latin Verse Composition.

By THOMAS KERCHEVER ARNOLD, M.A., late Rector of Lyndon. Fourth Edition, considerably revised. London: Rivingtons. 1864.

The object of this work is not to initiate the pupil in the mysteries of Latin verse composition, but to facilitate his transition from translation to original composition, and to teach him to compose the *Alcaic* and *Sapphic* stanzas. The favour with which the work has been received is proof sufficient that it accomplishes its object. The present edition has been improved. Especially the notes have been removed to the end of the work. There is every sign of care in the editing, extracts have been made from various works relating to verse-making, and the passages selected for translation are judiciously chosen.

Lessons in Elementary Botany. By DANIEL OLIVER, F.R.S., F.L.S., Professor of Botany in the London University, &c. &c. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. 1864.

In an article some time ago on "School Botany" (see *Museum*, Vol. III. p. 48), the writer strongly advocated the introduction of the elements of structural and systematic botany in schools, as a regular subject of their curricula. We now have the great

pleasure of calling the attention of our readers, and especially that of persons directly or indirectly interested in education, to the valuable little work whose title is here given, which fully elucidates the system pursued so successfully by the late Professor Henslow, as explained in the article above mentioned. We can most confidently recommend this volume to all persons, whether they be educationists or not, as coming from the pen of one who is himself recognised as a learned botanist, and whose name, therefore, is a sufficient guarantee for the accuracy of its botanical details (a desideratum much wanting in some of the cheap popular works on elementary botany of the present day). With regard to the details of the work, Part I. embodies a clear but popular account of the main facts of structural botany; though, of course, the subject matter is not new, being already contained in all good elementary works; yet, we may observe that the method Professor Oliver has adopted, is admirably adapted for conveying a sound knowledge of the main principles of the science. The second part contains the systematic portion, and is "based upon material left in MS. by the late Professor Henslow."

* This will be found fully explained in the former No. of the *Museum* already alluded to.

The author commences his volume by "The Examination of a Buttercup," and describes in pleasing yet accurate language its various parts, from the root to the "floral organs." In the second chapter he details the process of nutrition, how the organs just spoken of perform the functions of maintaining the life of the plant. In the third, he describes the process of reproduction, with an allusion to the remarkable discoveries of Mr Darwin in insect agency; and in the fourth and fifth chapters, by comparing a handful of wild flowers, he deduces the principles of classification, by observing the infinite deviations of structure from an assumed typical form.

Our author then proceeds to describe and illustrate the use of the "Floral Schedule;" this being followed by a chapter upon Plant Structure, and by another upon Anatomy, which concludes the first part.

Part II. is headed, "Classification of Plants," in which nearly all the British "Orders" are taken in succession, some one or more plants being chosen as a type of each order or family. A schedule of it is given, and observations upon peculiar characters, or deviations from the type, follow with brief notices of their economic or other properties. The concluding chapters are devoted, (1.) to flowerless or cryptogamic plants; (2.) to the method of drying and mounting specimens for a herbarium; and (3.) appendix to examples, shewing how to describe plants at length; the volume being terminated by an admirable index and glossary.

In concluding this brief summary, we heartily wish success to this little volume, as marking, we hope, the commencement of a new era in cheap scientific literature, and as conveying in half a dozen of its pages more sound, accurate, and pleasing botanical knowledge, than three times that number of many of the more fancifully titled, but less accurate, yet popular works on elementary botany.

Famous Regiments of the British Army: their Origin and Services. With a Sketch of the Rise and Progress of the Military Establishment of England, and Brief Memoirs of Eminent British Generals. By W. H. DAVENPORT ADAMS. Illustrated by A. G. FISHER. London: James Hogg and Sons.

This book does not profess to be written for boys, yet it is well calculated to attract them. And we give it a hearty welcome, because we are anxious to see works of an historical character drive out of the market the trashy novels which are ruining the minds of the young. Mr Adams has given an interesting account of the history of several regiments. Wherever he has to relate any great exploit, he generally quotes from the work of some distinguished historian. And so the youthful reader is introduced to Schiller, Motley, Napier, Macaulay, Kinglake, Russell, and men of a similar stamp.

The spirit of the book is also good, and we can therefore recommend it as suitable either for a prize or gift book to boys. The illustrations, we are sorry to say, are execrable, except the frontispiece, and are anything but creditable to Mr Fisher.

La Charité: A Drama in Two Acts by Callistus, Augustus Cle. De G. de LIAUCOURT, M.A. London: David Nutt, 270 Strand. 1864. Pp. 29.

This drama has been composed for the purpose of being got up and acted by boys at school; accordingly there is not a single female character in it.

The following is the plot:—The first act begins in a low public-house in Paris frequented by professional beggars, and ends with the arrest and imprisonment of those beggars as abusers of public charity. In the second act, the prisoners are converted by the sensible and loving words of the chaplain, the *Abbé Dubois*, aided, as might be expected in a Roman Catholic country by a small cross, and, which is altogether surprising, by a microscope! This microscope, for the introduction of which the context offers no occasion, when applied to a drop of foul water, proves more efficacious than the good counsel and the cross together, for immediately after its exhibition, all the prisoners cry out to the *Abbé*, "You have blotted out the last trace of our miseries;" and, in particular, the most obdurate of them, *Martello*, who had resisted all previous appeals, throws himself into the *Abbé's* arms, exclaiming, "I beseech you, forsake us not!" Meanwhile, the present Emperor of the French receives a letter from the Empress *Eugénie*, expressing her great obligations to the *Abbé Dubois* for his spiritual assistance on a recent occasion; whereupon the Emperor visits the prison, nominates the *Abbé* there and then a bishop, and at his request pardons the prisoners, whose conversion the *Abbé* has just accomplished.

The charge of unnaturalness, which lies against the plot, cannot be brought against the dialogue in the first act, where a very great many pithy popular sayings are put into the mouths of the professional beggars; but it may be doubted whether boys should be asked to commit to memory beggars' talk, however idiomatic, in a language they are only beginning to learn.

School-dramas are an excellent device; their composition is no easy task; and we therefore wish it had been possible to call *La Charité* a success.

Select Anecdotes: From Various Sources. By J. S. LAURIE. London: 1864.

This small volume forms part of the "Entertaining Library" intended for the young and less educated. We doubt, however, very much whether young people will be able to appreciate many of the

puns and sallies in which the anecdotes abound. The book is a collection of amusing stories, most of which have been retailed again and again, but which of course will be fresh enough to the less educated portion of the community for whom the series is designed.

NELSON'S SCHOOL SERIES.—*Class Register*. London: T. Nelson and Sons. 1864.

The excellence of this Register consists in its simplicity and distinctness of arrangement, and its elegance of execution. All registers, which are designed to meet government requirements in regard to statistics, must possess a certain measure of similarity, both in regard to the items included, and the arrangement of these. In these respects, the Register before us does not differ materially from several of its predecessors which we might name. But it derives an immense superiority over most of those that have come under our notice, from the fact of its being a work of lithography, and not of typography. The lines are drawn with the greatest regularity and clearness, qualities which must facilitate very much the daily use of the book, and still more the making of quarterly and yearly summaries.

The opening of two pages contains spaces for marking forty scholars for six weeks. After the names, there are spaces for the date of admission and the age. Under each day, there are two columns, one for morning, the other for afternoon attendances. The spaces for six weeks' markings are followed by a column for the total number of attendances, and another for the fees. At the foot of each page, there are spaces for the weekly sum-

maries and averages. At the foot of each alternate page—marking the end of a quarter—there are corresponding spaces for the quarterly results, while the last page of the book contains a yearly summary of the same points embraced in those for the week and quarter, and an "Attendance Ledger," in which the names of all pupils admitted at any time during the year may be entered, with the number of attendances during each quarter, and during the year. The prominence given to the element of attendance in connection with the Revised Code, makes it a matter of the first importance to have all such entries made in a distinct and regular form; and to this result the use of the Register before us would, it appears to us, very materially conduce.

Advanced Text-Book of Physical Geography. By DAVID PAGE, F.R.S.E., F.G.S. William Blackwood and Sons, Edinburgh and London. 1864.

This is a text-book which we can commend warmly to the notice of teachers. In teaching from the mere common text-books of geography, it is of importance that the teacher should consult some of the larger works devoted to the same subject. In dealing with physical geography, he will find a convenient guide in Mr Page's work. Mr Page gives a clear, distinct, and interesting account of the phenomena of physical geography, and applies philosophical principles to their explanation. He tries to adopt the mean, not giving too much or too little. The value of the work is much increased by his mentioning in explanatory notes the principal works in which the student who desires to prosecute the subject will find more ample details and explanations.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

21. The personal pronouns, with the exception of *he* and *it* in the singular, take two forms of the possessive case: (1.) *my, thy, her, our, your, their*, used when the noun which governs in the possessive is expressed; (2.) *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, used when the noun is understood, as this is *Mary's* book, — this is *her* book; this book is *Mary's*, — this book is *hers*. The words *my, thy, her, &c.*, since they occur always immediately in connection with nouns, convey more forcibly the idea of pos-

session, and on this account have received the distinctive appellation of possessive pronouns. Latham says (Sch. Gram. p. 85), that *mine, thine, hers, &c.* are adjectives, and that in all the allied languages they are declined as such; but whatever they may be historically, in the actual practice of the language they are possessive cases. The same writer (Sch. Gram. p. 84) says regarding the whole twelve words, they "denote possession, and as they are pronouns they may be called possessive pronouns." On the same principle we might call *Mary's* possessive noun, but in all such instances the idea of

possession is conveyed, not by the noun or pronoun as such, but by its particular form, consequently the phrase *possessive pronoun* is inaccurate. It appears, then, that all the words in question are possessive cases of the pronouns, and that while there is ground for distinction between the two classes, the terms generally used to mark that distinction are inappropriate.

W. A. C.

I think the distinctive names of "possessive pronouns," or "possessive adjective pronouns," or "possessive pronominal adjectives," as applied to *my*, *thy*, &c., and as adopted by Murray, Lennie, and their followers, are quite unnecessary, as are also those other distinctions of "distributive pronouns," "demonstrative pronouns," and "indefinite pronouns." Such a multiplication of grammatical terms is worse than useless, tending only to perplex the young mind, and should therefore be studiously avoided by every teacher.

1. *My*, *thy*, &c., are clearly possessive cases as much as *mine* and *thine*. The only distinction that requires to be noticed in teaching is, that *my*, *thy*, &c., are used when the noun is *expressed*, and *mine*, *thine*, &c., when the noun is *understood*. "This is my book," and "This book is mine," are evidently equivalent. *Mine*, *thine*, &c., were formerly used instead of *my*, *thy*, &c., when the word following began with a vowel sound, as "mine honour," "thine arm." In grave discourse we still follow the same usage.

2. The so-called distributive, demonstrative, and indefinite *pronouns* are really definitive adjectives, having the noun sometimes expressed and sometimes understood, as is often the case with other adjectives.

For a complete view of this subject see Bromby's English Grammar, page 88.

S. S.

Most grammarians, though giving the classification *possessive pronouns* and *possessive cases*, add that this distinction seems unnecessary. Latham says *my*, *thy*, &c., are true cases of the personal pronouns *mine*, *thine*, &c., possessive pronouns. The distinction has probably arisen from the adjective use of *my*, *thy*, &c., before a noun expressed, and of *mine*, *thine*, &c., when standing alone; but *mine* eye, *thine* hand, are quite common and quite grammatical. Some grammarians make use of the terms *conjunctive* with the noun, and *disjunctive* standing alone, possessive pronouns.

W. (Ayr.)

Grammarians are divided as to which are the "possessive pronouns" and which are the "possessive cases," and one (Dr Adams) states that the "poss. pronouns *mine*, *my*, &c., are the genitive cases of pers. pronouns," adding that the older forms *mine*, *thine*, &c., have in the later terms, *my*, *thy*,

&c., lost the suffix when the noun on which the genitive depends is expressed. The exceptional cases are *mine* and *thine*, which, in Old English and in modern poetry, are used before vowels and aspirates.

Mason (C. P.) holds that *my*, *thy*, &c., are not adjective pronouns, but the poss. cases of pers. pronouns, for the phrase "*My* hat," is precisely similar to the phrase "*John's* hat," the only difference being that we cannot, as in the latter case, say, "The hat is *my*." Again, the fact that *hers*, *ours*, &c., cannot be used with a noun, might prove that these are not simple poss. cases, but poss. pronouns. In this view, it would be quite legitimate to say, "I mourn *thy* fate who *wast* so dear to me."

Latham considers *my* equivalent to the Latin *mei*, and *mine* to *meus*.

QUENTIN.

22. I submit the following considerations in favour of the "old" reading:—

1. The least attention to this passage must satisfy us, that the poet is indulging in a play upon words, not unusual with him. The word "done" has three shades of meaning:—

Action	{	Performed without consequences.
		" criminally.
		" independent of guilt.

Following the new reading, these ideas would be detached and lose their force. The same might be said respecting "were:" the first being equal to "would be," and the second (line 2) to "should be."

2. The analysis favours the old reading. The last sentence, "we'd jump the life to come," is the natural close to "if the assassination," &c., the intervening clauses being parenthetical. The new reading would not mend this.

3. Does the new reading add to the perspicuity of the lines? Is it anything more than a mere coincidence that the change of punctuation does not *wholly destroy* the sense? Is not the antithetical arrangement of the old, not only preferable to, but really more Shakespearian, than any other reading?

QUENTIN.

Commentators on Shakespeare generally give the reading T. C. D. suggests in their notes, though retaining the common reading in the text. Johnson says, "a man of learning recommends" the placing of a period after the first line; Knight's Nat. Edit. names Mr Macready as giving this reading. The meaning of the whole of the first part of the soliloquy is rather obscure; the punctuation suggested seems that most adopted in the explanation of the passage. In my opinion, the sentence beginning, "If the assassination," loses all its meaning without "It were done quickly" joined to it.

W. (Ayr.)

23. (a) "That *piibroch* thrille—how—savage and shrill, in the noon of night,"

Prin. sentence. *Subj.* Real noun, enlarged by 1 adjec. adjunct

Pred. Simp. verb, extended by 4 adv. adjuncts, 3 of manner, and 1 of time.

- (b.) "But with (or "along with") the breath *which fills* their mountain-pipes."
 Simp. sentence Subj. Rel. pron.
 co-ord. adversative Pred. Simple verb.
 with (a.) Obj. Compound noun, enlarged by 1 adjec. adjunct.
 Ind. Obj. A phrase.
- (c.) "The mountaineers fill *—so—with the fierce native daring."
 Subord. Adv. sent. of Subj. Real noun.
 manner to (b.) Pred. Simple verb, extended by 1 adverbial adjunct of manner.
 Ind. Obj. A prep. phrase.
- (d.) "Which instils the stirring memory of a thousand years."
 Subord. adjective Subj. Rel. pron.
 sentence to (c.) Pred. Simple verb.
 Obj. A noun phrase.

[* This word was misquoted "fills" in Clavier's query. It will be found in Byron's "Waterloo" in the "English Reader" as "fill," and agrees with its nominative "mountaineers" in number, as "fills" agrees with its nominative "which," i. e. "breath." "ESSAY,"

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

14. *Solution by Scalar.*—Let a, b, c, d, e , be the r th, $(r+1)$ th, $(r+2)$ nd, $(r+3)$ rd, $(r+4)$ th co-effs of the Binomial Theorem. Then

$$a = \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n-r+1)}{1.2 \dots r}$$

$$\therefore \frac{b}{a} = \frac{n-r}{r+1}$$

$$b = \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n-r)}{1.2 \dots (r+1)}$$

$$\frac{c}{b} = \frac{n-r-1}{r+2}$$

$$c = \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n-r-1)}{1.2 \dots (r+2)}$$

$$\frac{d}{c} = \frac{n-r-2}{r+3}$$

$$d = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \dots (n-r-2)}{1.2 \dots (r+3)}$$

$$\frac{e}{d} = \frac{n-r-3}{r+4}$$

$$e = \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n-r-3)}{1.2 \dots (r+4)}$$

$$\therefore \frac{a+b}{a} = \frac{n+1}{r+1}; \frac{b+c}{b} = \frac{n+1}{r+2}; \frac{d+c}{c} = \frac{n+1}{r+3}; \frac{d+e}{d} = \frac{n+1}{r+4}.$$

$$\therefore (n+1) = (r+1) \frac{a+b}{a} = (r+2) \frac{b+c}{b} = (r+3) \frac{d+c}{c} = (r+4) \frac{d+e}{d}$$

$$\therefore r+1 = (r+2) \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{b+c}{a+b}$$

$$\therefore r+3 = (r+2) \frac{c}{b} \cdot \frac{b+c}{c+d}$$

$$\therefore 2 = \frac{(b+c)}{b} \left(\frac{a}{a+b} + \frac{c}{c+d} \right) = \frac{b+c}{b} \cdot \left(\frac{2ac+ad+bc}{ac+ad+bc+bd} \right)$$

$$\therefore 2abc + 2abd + 2b^2c + 2b^2d = 2abc + abd + b^2c + 2ac^2 + acd + bc^2.$$

$$\therefore abd + b^2c + 2b^2d = 2ac^2 + acd + bc^2. \quad (I.)$$

Again, $r+2 = (r+3) \frac{b}{c} \cdot \frac{c+d}{b+c}$

$$r+4 = (r+3) \frac{d}{c} \cdot \frac{c+d}{c+d}$$

$$\therefore 2 = \frac{c+d}{c} \left(\frac{b}{b+c} + \frac{d}{d+e} \right) = \frac{c+d}{c} \left(\frac{2bd+be+cd}{bd+be+cd+ce} \right)$$

$$\therefore 2bcd + 2bce + 2c^2d + 2c^2e = 2bcd + bce + c^2d + 2bd^2 + bcd + cd^2$$

$$bce + c^2d + 2c^2e = 2bd^2 + bcd + cd^2 \quad (II.)$$

but $abd + b^2c + 2b^2d = 2ac^2 + acd + bc^2.$

$$\therefore (a-e)bd - 2(a-e)c^2 + b^2(c+2d) - d^2(2b+c) = (a-e)cd + bc(e-e)$$

$$\therefore (a-e)(bd - 2c^2) + b^2(c+2d) - d^2(2b+c) = (a-e)cd + bc(e-e).$$

16. Solution by M.—

Let AB = length of the wall; D and C the stations CA is due north and south, and DB is due east and west.

∴ Angles at E are right angles.

∴ triangles DEA and BEC are equiangular.

∴ $DE : EA :: CE : EB$

∴ $DE : CE :: EA : EB$

∴ triangles DEC and AEB are equiangular.

∴ $DC : CE :: AB : BE$

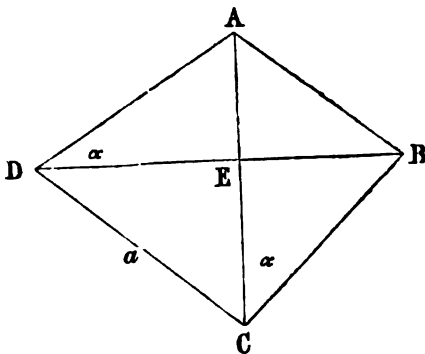
∴ $DC : AB :: CE : BE$

∴ $DC : AB :: 1 : BE$

$\frac{CE}{BE}$

$:: 1 : \tan \alpha$

∴ $AB = z \cdot \tan \alpha$



Open Council.

[No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

A contributor proposes the following questions:—

I. Is it compulsory on the part of Infant School Teachers to present every child, who is over six, and has attended 100 days, in Standard I.?

II. Is 100 days considered enough to prepare a child who has never had previous training (without cramming), for Standard I.?

Education at Home.

I. EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

REPORT OF THE EDUCATION INSPECTORS.—July 25. Lord Palmerston rose, according to notice, he said, to ask the House, which was one of the highest authorities in the realm, and from whose decision there was, technically, no appeal, to do an act of generosity and of justice. The approval of the House of Commons is one of the highest objects of ambition, and its censure is felt most deeply upon whom it may happen to fall. The Premier narrated the events relative to Mr Lowe's resignation, and of the appointment of the committee on the Reports. The resolution of the House had been entirely negatived by that committee, and he proposed to the House to rescind the resolution. Mr Howes, the chairman of the committee, said there could be no difference upon the point that the personal honour of the right hon. member for Calne was absolutely and entirely untouched. The committee had found that a censorship and control over the inspector's reports had been exercised with fairness and without excessive strictness. Mr Walter

thought that the misunderstanding that led to the Vice-President's resignation, was owing to the wrong meaning put upon the word "mutilation," chosen rather from the want of a better word than from the wish to reflect upon the right hon. gentleman. The alleged practice of marking the reports was the essence of the charges against the department, a practice which he (Mr Walter) did not complain of. But the gist of his complaint was, that passages not irrelevant were unfairly struck out. He quoted from several reports, shewing that the inspectors were made to be their own censors, without being told the parts of their reports that gave offence, and especially condemned the department for their demeanour towards Mr Longueville Jones, whom they had stigmatised with "disloyalty and baseness," because he had furnished him (Mr Walter) with a copy of a suppressed report, that militated against the views of the department, while they had actually published Mr Norris's correspondence with him, because it favoured their views. He hoped the inquiry would make the department more cautious, and the gentleman at the head of it disposed not to ride the coun-

try too hard. To work well, the system must be harmonious with school managers. He would have no objection to see the whole system swept away; education could go on without it. Mr Powell claimed for the inspectors the right to express their opinions, the suppression of which had not been impartial. Lord Robert Cecil repeated his disclaimer of any personal reflection, and observed, that after the decision of the committee, he could not quarrel with the course adopted by Lord Palmerston.

FACILITIES FOR DIVINE SERVICE IN COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS.—*July 20.* Mr Collins moved the second reading. The bill would virtually make each of the great schools a separate parish. It would apply only to schools incorporated by Parliament or royal charter. Mr Hardcastle believed the object was to get full church service daily into these schools, and to deprive dissenters of their advantages. He therefore moved that the bill be read that day three months. Several members opposed the bill, and Sir G. Grey appealed to the mover not to proceed this session. The order for the second reading was then discharged.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION.—*July 22.* Lord Brougham, in presenting several petitions on the subject of middle-class education, said, he desired to see a system of inspection for such schools established, and was sure that every school would soon submit to it for the sake of a certificate of character. There could be no doubt the education of the children of the middle classes was very defective. Earl Granville believed it to be the intention of the Government to issue a commission of inquiry into middle-class schools; he doubted the desirableness of inspection. Lord Brougham rejoiced at the intimation of the noble lord.

INDIA MEDICAL SERVICE BILL—*July 25.* On the order for the third reading of this bill, which proposed to abolish competitive examination, and to substitute the nomination of the Secretary for India, as a means of getting more candidates for the service, Mr Hennessey moved that the order be discharged, on the ground that parliament and the country approved of the competitive system. The proper remedy for the inadequate number and attainments of candidates would be to raise the terms, and make the prize sufficiently attractive. Colonel Sykes put the question thus,—We had 72 candidates for 90 vacancies, and only 50 passed. Abolish the examination, and the other 22 would have passed also. In no other way can you be able to select the most competent than by making the value of the appointment high enough to tempt them. Sir Charles Wood explained that his object in introducing the measure was to obtain a better description of medical officers for the Indian service. The bill would enable the Secretary for India to avail himself, for the

benefit of the native forces, of such assistant-surgeons as had entered the Queen's army upon public competition, and might subsequently volunteer for the Indian army. The bill was opposed by Mr Monsell, Mr Lealie, and Sir E. Colebrooke; and upon a division, Government was defeated by 46 to 44.

THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.—*July 26.* Sir J. Pakington gave notice of his intention, at the commencement of next session, to move for the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the constitution of the Committee of Council on Education, and how far the management of the business of that department met the requirements of the country, and also how the department applied the money which was voted by Parliament for educational purposes.

POPULAR EDUCATION.—*July 29.* Mr G. Duff asked the Secretary of State for the Home Department whether a royal commission was about to be issued to inquire into all those endowed schools which were not inquired into by the last two education commissions. Sir G. Grey said that an application had recently been made to his noble friend at the head of the Government to issue a commission to inquire into the state of those schools in which middle-class children were educated, and which were not inquired into by the last two education commissions. The Government had taken the application into consideration, and they thought it proper that an inquiry should take place, and he believed that a commission would shortly be issued.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.—At a meeting of the court of this University, held on Friday the 29th ult., the Rev. George C. M. Douglas, Professor of Hebrew in the Free Church College, was appointed to the vacant office of Examiner in Mental Philosophy. The application of Robert Buchanan, M.A., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics, for leave to resign his chair, was sustained. His successor will probably be appointed in September.

THE MEDICAL PROFESSION AND THE GOVERNMENT.—At the capping of the medical graduates—ninety-three in number—of Edinburgh University on the 1st ult., Dr Douglas Maclagan, in the closing address, referred to the disputes between the medical profession and the naval and military authorities. After strongly advising those whom he addressed to eschew the public service, if they "have the prospect of even moderate success in civil life," he stated that "medical officers of all grades are subjected to vexatious red-tapish surcharges for entries and medical comforts, which deprive them of that controlling power and free agency in their own department, which every practitioner in a decent civil hospital

enjoys. But this is neither all nor the worst of it. The real reason why you should be shy of making masters of those who rule the army is, that they have been guilty of breach of faith, and violation of promise to their medical department!"

This sounds uncommonly like the complaints made against another department of the State. Then the proof is wonderfully like what we have all heard before. First comes a warrant conferring certain privileges. Believing that good faith will be kept towards them, medical men come forward. What follows? "One by one these privileges were either openly set aside by circulars from head-quarters, or virtually abrogated by general and commanding officers, backed up in this by the higher powers. At length a bold attempt was made"—in fact a Revised Code—"to do away with the most important part of the warrant of 1858; but so loud a cry of indignation was raised, that the then Secretary of War stood aghast, and speedily withdrew the obnoxious document. The original warrant stands maimed, mutilated, never fully or fairly acted upon, and the result is, that the Army Medical Department is virtually in a state of disorganisation." Need we wonder that there are in the British and Indian forces about two hundred assistantships vacant, and not a fourth part of that number of candidates for them. The medical profession seem determined to bring their grievances before Parliament, with a boldness and determination which other professions would do well to emulate.

CAMBRIDGE.—Members of this university will learn with regret of the death of Rev. Jos. Romilly, M.A., one of the senior fellows of Trinity College, registrar of the university over thirty years, and chaplain to the late Archbishop of York. He was nephew to the celebrated Sir Samuel Romilly, and cousin to the present Master of the Rolls. He graduated in 1813. Mr Romilly died of heart disease at the age of seventy-five.

BELFAST COLLEGE.—The Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland has transferred Professor Nesbitt from the Greek chair of the Queen's College, Galway, to that of Latin in Belfast College.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

THE SUSPENDED CODE.—In several instances where schools in Scotland have been examined under the Revised Code, the result has not been announced, but the payments under the old Code have been simply remitted. Even although the payments for the years do not depend on the examination, it would surely be advantageous, both to teachers and managers, to know exactly how they stood.

THE ENDOWMENT MINUTE.—The concession made on March last, by which rural schools are partially (and it is only *partially*) exempted from this Minute

seems to have given very little satisfaction, either in Scotland or England. The Minute still remains in force for all the Madras and Lancasterian schools and indeed very few of those that draw from the Dick and Milne bequests will profit at all by the concessions. The exact position of endowed schools is one of the points that ought to be brought before the Education Commission.

BURGH AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS' WIDOWS' FUND.—The schoolmasters in the different Presbyteries met in the end of July to elect the office-bearers in connection with this fund, in anticipation of the annual meeting in September. The fund now consists of upwards of £100,000, and as it is in contemplation to procure an amendment of the act by which it is constituted, it is worthy of consideration whether the basis of membership might not be widened without in the least damaging the interests of the present contributors.

NEW SCHOOL FOR GLASGOW.—The late William Logan, tinsmith in Glasgow, and his wife, have left a third part of their estate, which is expected to yield about £24,000, to found a charitable establishment or school "for the education, uplifting, and assisting in life poor or destitute step-children or orphans, either boys or girls." They must be of Scotch extraction, profess the Protestant religion, and be admitted between the ages of seven and ten years, but not to be allowed to continue in school after they have attained the age of fourteen. They are to receive "a plain, English education, including reading, writing, and arithmetic; a suit of clothes is also to be provided for each pupil yearly, and two pairs of shoes. When attending school, they are also each to receive a penny roll of bread every day at mid-day." Children of the name of Logan and Johnston are to be preferred, and the institution is to be named "The Logan and Johnston School."

THE ST VIGAN'S CASE.—Mr Naysmith, parochial schoolmaster, St Vigan's, Arbroath, who was recently found guilty of immorality by the Sheriff of Forfarshire, still remains in his school. He has appealed to the Court of Session to have the sentence quashed. He argues several pleas, the leading one being, that at the time when he is said to have committed the offence with which he was charged, the Presbytery, and not the Sheriff, were the party having jurisdiction. The offence, it will be remembered, was withholding from the Parochial Board a certain proportion of the proclamation fees which Mr Naysmith had promised to give. There is a strong feeling that the clause of the act of 1861, making the Sheriff's decision final, is unnecessarily harsh and severe. It is understood that the Commissioners of Supply have refused to pay the heritors the expenses of the prosecution from the rogue money. It would seem that the heritors are entitled to insist on this under the act of 1861. But this applies only to the

case before the Sheriff. In the case of the school-master of Kennoway, who appealed to the Court of Session, the heritors themselves had to pay expenses.

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

The Rev. Albert Daymond, Master of St Mark's College Schools, has been selected to fill the post of Head-Master of the new Albert Middle Class College, Framlingham, Suffolk.

The Rev. George French, M.A., late Sub-Master of St Saviour's Grammar School, Southwark, has been appointed Inspector of Schools.

The Rev. W. Trafford, M.A., first Assistant Master in Durham School, has been appointed Head Master of the Uffaline Grammar School, Devon.

The Rev. J. Alloway has been appointed Second Master of the Grammar School, Newport, Salop.

Rev. J. Kempthorne, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, to be Head Master of Blackheath Proprietary School.

Rev. J. Middleton to be Head Master, King's School, Bruton, Somersetshire.

Rev. J. D. Kingdon, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, Assistant Master in King's College School, London, appointed Head Master of Sutton Valence Grammar School.

ERRATUM.—The Rev. J. G. Cromwell, of the Durham Training College, was last month mentioned under this head, as of University College, Oxford. Mr Cromwell is of Brasenose. He remains at Durham until Christmas.



Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—In answer to a letter from the chief Rabbi of Paris, requesting that the day for certain compositions, forming part of the grand annual academic competition (see July Number of *Museum*, p. 154), might be changed from Saturday, M. Duruy, Minister of Public Instruction, wrote, on the 8th June, in the following polite terms:—

"I am distressed at not being able to accede to your request. The composition papers are already on their way to their various destinations in France; and they sailed in yesterday's steamers for Corsica and Algeria. It is too late now to recall them.

"I am well aware that on Saturdays you are bound to cease from servile work; but I thought that intellectual exertion was no longer included by your doctor among the works from which you were bound to abstain.

"If I am mistaken, I shall be happy to learn the views of the Jewish consistory on this subject.

"I was thirty years a teacher; and during all that time I never saw the Sabbath law so strictly interpreted as to interfere with the compositions which close the year in the Lyceums, with those of the grand annual academic competition, or even with the ordinary school tasks."

GERMANY.—For some years past the teachers of the *gymnasien* (classical schools) of the Middle Rhine have held an annual conference in one or other of its principal towns. The teachers of the *real-schulen* (commercial schools) of the same district have this year followed the example, having held their first conference at Mayence on the 17th May. The forenoon was spent in discussing professional questions, the first proposed being, How it came to pass that the merchants of Mayence complained of *real-schulen* pupils being ill prepared for their apprentice-

ships. It was stated that many of the Mayence merchants bore testimony quite opposite; and the ultimate source of the complaint was declared to be the prevalent custom of withdrawing pupils several years before the end of the curriculum, say in their fifteenth years, instead of their eighteenth.

Additional light is thrown upon the subject by a recent article in the *Berlin Educational Journal*. Statistics, it appears, attest the overcrowding of the lower and middle classes in the *gymnasien* and *real-schulen* alike; and also that of the pupils in the former only 44 per cent., and of those in the latter only 10 per cent. go through the whole curriculum. The overcrowding of the classes in question is believed to lower the proficiency of the pupils; and the remedy proposed is the establishment of inferior middle class schools, with a shorter curriculum complete in itself, and especially adapted to the wants of those who do not require or cannot meet the expense of the eight years' curriculum in the *gymnasien* and *real-schulen*.

PRUSSIA.—So long ago as 1842, attendance during several weeks at a normal seminary was made imperative on Protestant divinity students in Prussia, for the purpose of rendering them more fit, on obtaining cures, to superintend the schools. On the 30th July 1863, the Breslau consistory passed a series of ordinances on the subject which seemed to imply that, up to that time at least, the original decree had been indifferently observed. Thus the obligatory term of attendance is declared to be of six weeks' duration, the first four weeks to be spent in the normal seminary itself, and the remaining two in the practising school attached; again, the divinity students must present themselves to the director of the normal seminary one day at least before the

term begins; they must devote their *whole* time during the term to the object of their residence; they are not to undertake excursions on school-days, or, except under dire necessity, to miss any lesson; they may not disturb the domestic arrangement, and they must join, as often as possible, in the daily worship of the establishment.

Not long ago needlework was added to the number of obligatory subjects of instruction in the elementary girls' schools throughout Prussia.

HANOVER.—Except in about a dozen instances, where the attendance is under twenty pupils, the salaries of the national school teachers in western Hanover have now attained or exceeded the minimum aimed at, viz., £22, 10s., with free house, or an allowance for it, said allowance averaging in the country district, £2, 5s. This result has been attained in most cases by local efforts alone, in a great many by local effort and government aid combined, and in a very few by government grants alone. The average salary of the national schoolmaster in western Hanover is now £86, 12s. 6d., of those in towns, £61, and of those in the country, £55. In both town and country, but especially in the country, higher salaries are given in the schools of the Calvinistic confession than in those of the Lutheran.

BADEN.—In spite of clerical opposition, the Baden Chambers have passed a School Reform Bill which, for the first time in Germany, places public

instruction under the management and inspection of purely government officials, i.e. of local committees and district inspectors nominated by, and responsible to, government alone. The parish school, of which the parish priest was formerly accepted as the natural superintendent, is now to be superintended by a school committee, in which the teacher himself is to sit, with a vote, and the parish priest to preside, not *ex-officio*, but in virtue of special nomination by government. To each of the eleven school-districts, into which the Grand-Duchy of Baden is divided, a government inspector is to be attached, with a salary averaging £150 a year.

Friburg, the seat of the archiepiscopal see, has been the head-quarters of opposition to this bill. A great meeting of the clergy was held there to protest beforehand, and to threaten the government with the establishment of rival schools in the interest of Roman Catholicism; there circulars were distributed inviting the women to the cathedral for the purpose of praying against the bill; and the archbishop of Friburg goes back in his pastoral to the times of Julian the apostate, to find a persecution as cruel as that which the School Reform Bill is now inflicting on the church in Baden.

At an expense of fully £8000, the Baden Chambers have added to the educational appliances of the Grand-Duchy a gymnastic training school to be set up at Karlsruhe; a school, that is to say, not simply for teaching gymnastics, but specially for training teachers for gymnastics.

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

BRITISH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The Quarterly Meeting was held on Saturday, 6th August, at the Normal College, Borough Road—J. C. Curtis, B.A., Principal of the College, presiding. A paper entitled "Our Encouragements," by Mr Edmed, of the Asylum at Reedham, was read. The attendance was scanty, owing to the time of year, and the Principal gave it as his opinion, that it would be preferable for the future to meet in September instead of August, a subject to be discussed at a future meeting. After the usual regale of coffee and buns, a discussion ensued, in which Messrs Russell, Jones, and others, joined. The reader of the paper replied, and the meeting was brought to a conclusion by a speech from the chairman.

SCOTTISH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.—The annual meeting of this Association was held

in the month of June last. Dr Bedford of Edinburgh gave an address to the brethren. In room of those retiring, Mr Graham, Burgh School, Stirling, was elected Preses; Mr Sturrock, F. C. School, Linlithgow, Treasurer; and Mr Wardrop, Alva, Secretary. It was remitted to the committee to take such steps as they might consider best fitted to bring the views of teachers before the Commission about to inquire into the state of education in Scotland. As a first step, the Association has issued to all its members a series of queries bearing on the following subjects, viz., School District, Local Superintendence, Training and Payment of Teachers and Pupil-teachers, and the Revised Code.

KIRKCALDY—MEETING OF TEACHERS.—The Kirkcaldy District Association of Teachers held a meeting in the Bell Coffeehouse—Mr Hunter,

teacher, Buckhaven, in the chair. The chief business was—1st, An expression of opinion by those present as to what is necessary in a proper national system of education; and next, a consultation regarding the steps which ought to be taken in order to make the views of teachers on that subject known to the Royal Commission about to be issued to inquire into Scottish education. It was held that teachers are as deeply interested in the education of the country as any class of persons in it; their means of knowing what changes in its present state are desirable is also superior to those possessed by individuals engaged in other pursuits; and therefore it was judged that an educational question is pre-eminently one upon which teachers ought to make their opinions known. To carry out this idea, it was resolved to correspond with teachers in various parts of the country, and to urge upon them the propriety of holding local meetings in every district, at which the present state of education and the changes desirable in it might be discussed; and also to point out the necessity of holding a great central meeting in Edinburgh, from which a matured plan, embodying the views of the whole teachers of the country, might be issued. After appointing individuals to act as correspondents, the meeting broke up.

MEETING OF THE KIRKCALDY BRANCH OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE.—The usual quarterly meeting of the Kirkcaldy Branch of the Educational Institute of Scotland was held in the Burgh School, on Saturday the 30th ult.—Mr Forbes, of Philp's Institution, Kinghorn, in the chair. Mr Alison, of Gallatown Subscription School, was admitted a member of the Institute. On the subject of the appointment of a Royal Commission to examine into the state of edu-

cation in Scotland, with the view of establishing a national system, being introduced, several of the members expressed their opinion on the subject. The Institute representing all classes of teachers, each member is held responsible for his own opinions. Mr Alison stated that he had urged upon the teachers present at the meeting, held on the preceding Saturday, the advisability of acting through the Institute, and that it had been agreed at the meeting to correspond with teachers in the central districts in Fife, in order to have a meeting of Fife teachers in November, and another general meeting in Edinburgh.

Mr M'Nab of Markinch, very forcibly expressed his opinion that the state of education in Scotland was very unsatisfactory. That while the education now imparted was much better than it was twenty years ago, before the introduction of the present Government measure, now being rapidly overthrown, the teachers themselves were left in a very unsatisfactory position. That although the condition of parochial teachers was somewhat, though still in many places not sufficiently, improved by the late Parochial Schools Bill, all teachers not parochial were practically excluded from the benefit of that Act.

Mr Guthrie suggested that the amount at present granted in Scotland for elementary education might be consolidated, and be administered by a Board in Scotland, with provision for inspection as heretofore; and that where new schools were required, or where there was not adequate provision for improvements and repairs, a small rate might be levied to defray the expense. He thought that the Institute should move in the matter, and that its place, as an educational power in the country, should be recognised.

The secretary was instructed to write to the secretaries of the associations in Fife and Kinross to call a general meeting of all the teachers in November.



The Month.

THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS.—The evidence which forms the bulk of the Blue-book recently issued on this subject, throws far more light upon the proceedings of the Education Office than we were led to expect by the very one-sided report of the Special Committee, which was all that had reached us when we dealt with the question in this place last month. Indeed, no one can compare the report with the evidence, without being struck by the manifest inconsistency between them. No one expected, when the constitution of the Committee was known, that the result would be unfavourable to the office; yet hardly any one could

have expected that such evidence would have led to so lame and impotent a conclusion. The evidence, however, was not taken for behoof of the Committee alone, and it will no doubt be made available when the education department is arraigned before a higher tribunal.

The greater part of the Committee's report is occupied with a detailed account of the manner in which the reports of the inspectors have been dealt with at different periods since the system originated. But they say far less than might fairly have been expected of them, on the real points at issue between the Education Office and

its assailants. They enlarge inordinately upon the marking of the MS. reports, to indicate passages that were deemed objectionable, as if that were the gravamen of the charge. And when they say that this has not been done since 1862, and that before 1862 it was done "through inadvertence or mistake," they seem to hold the Committee of Council acquitted. This is very far from being the real question at issue. Indeed, if censorship is to be exercised at all, we hold the marking of the objectionable passages to be not only fair and reasonable, but absolutely necessary to the proper working of the system. Mr Lowe appears to us to deserve anything but credit for his order to stop the marking of the reports. It was nothing less than a device to conceal the real grounds on which any particular report was objected to. Obviously it was more convenient that the Office should not stand committed to special objections, for which they might have to answer to some troublesome Lord Robert Cecil. So far, therefore, is the marking from being an offence, that we consider the not marking a far more dangerous and Jesuitical mode of procedure.

With a perverse determination not to see the real point, or at least to seem not to see it, the Committee tell us, as if it were a complete vindication of the Office, that whatever alterations were made on the reports after 1861, "were made by the inspectors themselves on receiving back their reports, with the intimation that they were not in conformity with the Minute of that date." Again the intent is plainly apologetic. This way of putting the matter is very ingenious, indeed very lawyer-like, but withal very unscrupulous. Why, the whole of the issues come to be centred ultimately in the one question, Whether these alterations "made by the inspectors themselves," under a threat of suppression, were not really "mutilations," for which the Office was responsible? This was the drift of the examination both of Mr Lingen and of Mr Lowe, as conducted with great ability by Lord Robert Cecil. Mr Lingen in effect admitted the identity of the two processes, though when the issue was fairly put before him, he shrank from directly accepting it. And when completely shut in by the application of the proverb "*qui facit per alium, facit per se*," he surrendered at discretion, and begged that the question should be answered by "those under whose orders I acted." And, accordingly, the interesting passage of arms between Lord Robert Cecil and Mr Lowe culminated in precisely the same point. "Do you see any difference," Mr Lowe was asked, "between sending them a report back and ordering them to cut certain passages

out, and sending them a report back and letting them know that unless they cut those passages out, the report will be suppressed?" But Mr Lowe was far too acute and slippery to be caught by such a question as that. He entrenched himself behind the jargon of the circumlocution office, from which, with a supercilious coolness all his own, he refused to move. He denied that an inspector was either expected or required to "expunge or qualify." He had only to make his report "conformable to the instruction; how that was done was his business." On these two expressions, "conformable to the instruction," and "that was his business," he rang the changes all through this part of his examination, as if they were, as they really seemed to be, the whole of his defence. But they are in reality no defence when transferred from the misty atmosphere of the Committee-room to the clear light of day. No one believes it to be a defence; it is a mere dexterous artifice to conceal the real question, a mere darkening of counsel by specious words. For what is the instruction? It is to "confine themselves to the state of the schools under their inspection, and to practical suggestions for their improvement." And lest this should seem to allow too wide a latitude, the explanation was added in August 1863, "by the term, 'state of schools under your inspection,' you will understand *facts observed within the circle of your official experience*; and by the term 'practical suggestions for their improvement,' you will understand *suggestions consistent with the principles of Minute sanctioned by Parliament*." So that an inspector is positively forbidden to make any suggestion, however good in itself, which is not "consistent with the principles of Minutes sanctioned by Parliament," that is, which is not agreeable to the policy of the department. He may see the most flagrant errors and abuses "within the circle of his official experience." If he points them out, he will be told that he is trying "to embarrass the department." If he cannot suggest any remedy "consistent with the principles" of the department, he must hold his tongue. If he ventures to make a different kind of suggestion, his report will be sent back to him as objectionable. Under the threat of suppression, he cuts out the objectionable passage. Yet this is not mutilation, because, as the Committee sapiently suggest, it is done by the inspector himself. And on the same principle, when a Persian minister hangs or poisons himself by order of the Shah, it is not murder, it is not even execution, it is only compulsory suicide!

It is quite clear now, we should think, what the

grounds are on which a report is considered objectionable. It is equally evident, too, that the real questions for the Committee to consider were, whether this process was not really tantamount to "the exclusion from (the reports) of statements and opinions adverse to the educational views entertained by the Committee of Council?" and whether the sending back of reports with the alternative threat, *alter or burn*, was not tantamount to "mutilation" of the worst kind? But the Committee refuse to see these points, or to deal with them directly. They merely tell us, very superfluously, that the alterations have been "made by the inspectors themselves;" and in another paragraph on the general question, they find that the supervision exercised by the office "has, *on the whole*, been exercised fairly, and without excessive strictness."

The report contains some strange revelations regarding the procedure of the Office. It appears that the Minute of 1861, containing the regulations under which the reports are at present written, *was never presented to Parliament*, and has only received Parliamentary sanction in this indirect way, that the estimates continued to be voted without any one taking exception to it. It further appears that the Circular of August 1863, containing the arbitrary conditions and limitations quoted above,—and which Mr Lingen says "is not my own invention merely, but was very fully considered by the heads of the department to whom I am responsible,"—has never been laid before Parliament, though the Blue-book published in June afforded a fair and proper opportunity of doing so. But for this Committee of Inquiry we should probably never have heard of it. Yet Mr Lingen assures us that "every Minute is laid before Parliament;" and this very Circular makes the "principle of Minutes sanctioned by Parliament" the test of conformity. They certainly manage things strangely in the Education Office.

MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION.—In summing up the educational prospects of next session of Parliament, we last month suggested that the subject of Middle Class Education was likely to be considered. Sooner than we anticipated, the question has taken shape. On the very last night of the session, Sir George Gray announced that Government had resolved to issue a Commission to inquire into the existing means for educating the Middle Classes in England. The inquiry will of course primarily relate to the public grammar schools, and to the small foundation schools. But no such inquiry would be complete did it not

embrace in some form the host of private schools which are indeed the chief means of Middle-Class Education in England. We are glad to find the Council of the College of Preceptors advising the members, who are chiefly private schoolmasters, not to manifest unwillingness to submit to inquiry.

We cannot anticipate all the abuses and imperfections which the Commission will discover in our Middle-Class Schools, endowed and unendowed. There is little doubt, however, that they will find urgent need of something being done to improve them. Who is to do it, is another question. In the House of Lords in May, Lord Granville stated, in reply to Lord Brougham, that Government was doubtful how far Parliament would sanction the expenditure of public money for this object, and that they were inclined to leave the matter to county associations. Probably the issuing of this Commission indicates some change of opinion on the part of Government. We hope it does. County associations would in most cases come to mean the county clergy; and the clergy have quite enough to do with education already. Neither need the willingness of Parliament to vote money for this object be long left in doubt. If it be right that they should give the money, and if the money is required, the question is surely worth trying.

THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION COMMISSION.—More than two months have elapsed since the intention to appoint this Commission was intimated, and yet the Commission has not been issued. It is understood that it has been constituted, though the names of the members have not transpired. We must repeat this month an expression of our surprise at this delay, seeing that the period of the Commission's labours, as regards elementary schools at least, is limited to June 1865.

EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN.—The new Act to extend the Factory Acts has been printed. Amongst its provisions are those of the old Act requiring the attendance at school of children between certain specified ages for half of the day as a condition of working on the other half. The factories to which the Act applies are those for the manufacture of earthenware (except bricks and tiles), lucifer matches, percussion caps, cartridges, paper staining and fustian cutting. The Report upon which this Act is founded, states the number of children who will be benefited by its enactment as follows:—In the potteries, 11000; lucifer business, 1613; percussion caps, 150; paper staining, 1150; finishing and hooking, 2300; fustian cutting, 1563; between 17000 and 18000 in all.

THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THOUGHTS ON THE USE TO BE MADE OF GREEK AND LATIN IN THE EDUCATION OF THE HIGHER CLASSES.



AMONG the various reactions, pretended or real, for which the age is famous, there is one, at all events, the fact of which must to a very great extent be admitted. It is that

which restores to the Greek and Latin languages their ancient prestige as the true foundation of a liberal education. After enjoying for nearly three centuries an unchallenged monopoly in our public schools, these languages found themselves rudely assailed and unequivocally condemned, as instruments of higher education, by those who professed to represent the progressive and utilitarian spirit of the time. The arguments which these reformers or innovators made use of were not without speciousness and force. There was indeed a certain amount of absolute truth in them, and they were so far effective as to create a numerous and influential party, eager to revolutionise the whole system of education, and to invest the modern languages and the physical and moral sciences with the prerogatives so long monopolised by the literature and speech of Ancient Greece and of Rome. But though the assailants of "former use and wont" had some reason on their side, yet they did not make the most of it. The line of argument adopted by them was generally one which seemed to resolve the controversy into the question, whether *education* or *instruction* should be the chief aim in the training of youth; whether the efforts of the teacher should mainly be directed to the development of the powers of

thinking, or to the provision of materials for thought? It was a case of Useful Knowledge *versus* Cultivated Intelligence. When the dispute was allowed to take this form, it was obvious enough how it must end. If classical studies were to be accepted as the types of a process of mental discipline, on the one hand, and the rival curriculum was to stand simply as the representative of miscellaneous information and acquaintance with things practically useful, on the other, it was certain that the verdict of mature and enlightened public opinion would be in favour of classical studies. For this and other reasons, there certainly has for some little time been a tendency to seek again the old paths, and, while giving to other branches of study a subordinate position in the work of education, to preserve for Greek and Latin the highest place and the largest share of honour. The published opinion on this subject of the Public Schools Commissioners has given further impulse to this re-action, and it seems probable that for years to come the sons of the higher classes in this country will receive their intellectual training to a very great extent through the medium of the classical languages.

On the whole, we are prepared to accept this conclusion as the best and soundest that the directors of education could have arrived at. But we cannot by any means make this admission without important qualifications and reservations. We at once allow that the first thing to be sought, and the most important thing to be secured, in a

system of education, is the awakening, disciplining, and maturing of the mental powers. The furnishing of information is undoubtedly to be also thought of. To communicate facts is a very essential part of a teacher's business. So, too, it should be provided that the knowledge imparted shall have some relation to the future conditions and responsibilities of life. It follows, then, that those branches of study should have the preference, which combine all these elements in the highest possible degree. If there be a study which is an effective discipline for the mind, which at the same time furnishes a rich store of knowledge, and which, moreover, has a practical bearing on the duties and requirements of life, that study is above all others the one to be made use of in the training of youth. There is, of course, no single branch of study which is in itself sufficient for all this. The Greek and Latin languages and literatures, however, have, it must be admitted, a great deal of capability in this threefold direction. But we fear that their case looks better in theory than it can be proved to be in practice. In the first place, valuable as the study of them undoubtedly is as a discipline; rich as the harvest of poetry, history, and philosophy to be reaped from it must be confessed to be, there is, after all, a want of adaptation in the knowledge acquired to the circumstances of the present day. We are conscious that we are saying what has often been said before, but we venture to say it again, as a necessary introduction to what is the true and immediate object of this paper. Take the case of a youth who has made more than average progress in classical scholarship during his school days, and who, having—as the popular phrase is—finished his education, is about to enter on a professional career. Henceforth the exigencies of his calling will absorb nearly all his time and attention. The season—we will not say of self-improvement, but—of systematic education for him is over and gone. And what is his intellectual stock in trade? Granting him to have a cultivated intellect, refined tastes, disciplined habits of thought, what are the materials stored up in the treasure-house of his mind? How far do they correspond with the conditions of his special status, the practical realities of his life? He is an Englishman, the heir of a glorious past, a sharer in the blessings of a free constitution built up through a national life of centuries. Is he thoroughly conversant with the history of his country, with the principles of its constitution? Are all the great questions of policy that have been debated, all the popular rights that have been battled for and won during the last eight

hundred years, known and understood by him? Are the great deeds, the grand historic names, of England, familiar to him as household words? Is he a master of the speech of Shakespeare and Bacon, versed in the literature to which they made such splendid contributions? Again, he has to act his part in life amidst social and political changes at home and abroad, amidst the closer intercourse and alliance of nations, amidst the growth of commerce and the progress of science. How far is he fitted for this by his knowledge of the facts of modern history, the elements of science, the first principles of political economy? The chances are that he enters on his career better acquainted with the history of the Peloponnesian war than with the Revolution of 1688; with the struggles between the Plebeians and Patricians in Rome, than with the long contest between prerogative and liberty in England; with the physical speculations of Thales, Anaxagoras, and Anaximander, than with the discoveries of Newton, the researches of Davy, and the speculations of Lyell.

But we have taken the case of a student who has turned his classical training to good account. Where the result of giving to Greek and Latin a monopoly in the business of education is to make the pupil a sound Greek and Latin scholar, there is not so much to complain of. But this result is not always secured. Indeed, if the classical scholarship of all who have had ordinary grammar school education were tested at the close of their pupilage, soundness and thoroughness would, we fear, turn out to be the exception rather than the rule. It is too frequently the case, that after spending eight or nine years in learning little else save Greek and Latin, the unfortunate alumni of our public and grammar schools, find themselves in the condition in what, according to the popular tradition, the immortal Shakespeare himself was, that is to say, possessed of "little Latin and less Greek."

What then have such to shew as the product of their life's irrevocable seed-time? Excellent as may be the discipline involved in learning the classical tongues, how far can we venture to hope that he has profited by the discipline, who has after all failed to learn them? Take the not uncommon case of a boy who has blundered through considerable portions of half a dozen authors, has imperfectly learned the Greek and Latin grammars, has sent up a competent number of crude and inaccurate exercises in composition, and, in doing his work, has availed himself of all the ordinary shifts and contrivances to save labour, or to escape criticism. Is such a boy's mind very greatly strengthened, his views enlarged, his taste

cultivated by these processes so reluctantly undergone, so superficially performed?

We do not indeed forget Dr Arnold's observation, that "even where the results of a classical education are least tangible and least appreciated even by the individual himself, still the mind often retains much of the effect of its early studies in the general liberality of its tastes and comparative comprehensiveness of its views and notions." But while receiving with deference every utterance of such a man as Arnold, and while admitting that this particular statement contains a certain amount of truth, we think that it applies to those who, having fairly mastered the classics in youth, have forgotten them at a more advanced period of life, rather than to those who, though they may have been learning Latin and Greek all their school-days, have never come to any adequate knowledge of them at all. And amongst those enjoying the advantage of a liberal education, this class, we repeat, is a numerous one.

To what then do these remarks tend? They introduce us to the first position which we desire to maintain, viz., *that whatever be the merits of Greek and Latin as instruments of education, the monopoly which they enjoy cannot be justified by the results which, in the case of average pupils, follow from them as at present taught.*

Now the insufficiency of classics to meet the requirement of the age in an educational point of view, has been practically conceded by the additions which have been made to the course of studies adopted in every successful school. The introduction of modern languages and modern history, of elementary mathematics and elementary science, is a concession to the opponents of the ancient regime. It has indeed been fully enough characterised as a compromise between the two rival systems effected by their amalgamation.

What then may be expected to be and really is the result of this combination? If the new subjects have anything like fair play, they cause the pupil who learnt very little Greek and Latin before to learn somewhat less now, while he acquires at the best but a very superficial knowledge of themselves. But in many cases the new subjects do not get fair play. They are relegated to out-of-the-way corners of the time-table; they are limited to very short and unfrequent lessons; they are entrusted to the younger subalterns among the officers of the school. In short, this attempt to settle amicably the strife between the old and the new, generally serves to illustrate the difficulty involved in attempts at serving two masters.

What then, it may be asked, is the remedy which we propose? What form, according to

our view, should the highest education of the present day take?

We are conscious of the difficulty of the question, and we state all opinions with diffidence, and with a hope that, if not acquiesced in, they may at least be regarded with indulgence by the reader.

We admit then, as we have already admitted, the superiority of Greek and Latin as a basis of education. Language being the very vehicle of thought and the outward form of reason, the study of it must, we think, be the best process that can be hit upon for training the mind to reason and to think. Such are the conditions of Greek and Latin that they are undoubtedly the best types of language for this purpose. We at once, therefore, concede the employment of them in this way. But they should not be used generally as if the final cause of learning them was to obtain a knowledge of them for practical purposes. They are not wanted, except by very few, either for speaking or writing. Nor again should they be taught as if the great end of education was simply to make young Englishmen profound classical scholars.

We assert, on the other hand, that even in our public schools the study of the dead languages should be auxiliary to other aims. These languages, indeed, deserve the attention of all who are so fortunate as to possess leisure and taste enough for a protracted study of them, purely on their own merits, and for the sake of the rich and varied literature embodied in them. *But to the majority of young Englishmen who are receiving a liberal education, they should be taught chiefly in their relation to English language and literature, and just so far as they are necessary for understanding the structure and genius of our native tongue, for gaining an insight into the principles of language in the abstract, and for appreciating the spirit of our national literature, the forms it has assumed, and the allusions that are scattered through it.*

We maintain that, as far as regards the literary department of education, a thorough mastery of the English language, and a thorough acquaintance with classical English writers, is the great end to be kept in view. If it can be accomplished, it is indeed well that a man should be conversant both with Homer and Milton. But if it is only possible for him to become intimately acquainted with one of them, we should say that, in the case of an Englishman, that one should be Milton. An Englishman, again, who has not studied Sophocles, is a loser of much that is exalted in poetry, graphic in description, philosophical in sentiment. But an Englishman who is not well read in Shakespeare, is not only a loser of all this

in a higher degree, but he incurs the discredit of being ignorant of works that are the boast and glory of his native land, and that are steeped in the richest colours of the national life. Our proposition, therefore, is not by any means to banish Greek and Latin from the course of study prescribed in our schools; not absolutely to deprive them of the prominence which they at present enjoy; not merely to append to them a variety of supplementary studies; but to *reform the methods of teaching them, to modify the results aimed at, and to limit the attention bestowed on them to certain specific points.*

As far, then, as the mass of students are concerned, we think that the use to be made of the dead languages in education, should have reference to the following objects:—

1. The practical exemplification of the laws of language, and the general principle of grammar.
2. The investigation and elucidation of the origin, structure, development, and affinities of our native tongue.
3. The illustration of the various references and allusions to be found in our national literature, and of the relation and obligation to the literature of Greece and Rome.

If we are not mistaken, the recognition of these conclusions would lead to something like a revolution in the method of teaching Greek and Latin.

In the first place, the student might be spared the infliction of making himself acquainted with a good deal of what we may call *classical cram*. A considerable portion of mythology and antiquities, genealogies of gods and pedigrees of heroes, details of ancient manners and customs, minutiae of economy and law, might be quietly passed over.

Something, again, might be saved in the matter of composition. We do not undervalue the power of writing good Latin prose; we admit the art of writing elegant Latin verse to be a graceful accomplishment; we confess to having striven after both gifts in our day; but we say that a true view of education, regarded in the interest of the many, not of the few, forbids us to give much prominence to these exercises.

Moreover, the novice in classical studies might, at the outset of his course, be spared the necessity of learning painfully and by rote a good deal of heavy matter that is now generally forced upon him. The "Propria quæ maribus," "As in præ-senti," &c., of your Eton grammar, and whatever corresponds to them in other text-books, furnish an excellent illustration of the trouble taken to

increase the difficulties and to heighten the repulsiveness of the road to Latin scholarship. The committing to memory, again, of the rules of syntax, without any intelligent apprehension of them, without any examination of their rationale, would, under a new system, be replaced by a simple, logical, and practical exposition of syntactical relations.

But to make this enunciation of our views intelligible and useful, we must enter into details, and describe more exactly the processes of instruction which we would substitute for prevailing methods.

In the first place, then, *we would teach Latin grammar and English grammar simultaneously.* Our first step would be to explain simply and briefly the nature of the different parts of speech, and, as far as a boyish understanding could take it in, the principles of the classification.

Then, beginning with the noun, and passing on to the other parts of speech, we would illustrate the use of inflexion, and call attention to the difference between a highly inflected language like Latin, and a language that has lost most of its inflections, like modern English. The pupil would, of course, at the same time make himself thoroughly familiar with the case-endings of the five Latin declensions, and we may observe in passing that we should be greatly tempted, in carrying out our scheme of instruction, to adopt the crude-form system so ably expounded in the valuable grammar of Professor Key. Opportunity would gradually present itself of giving the learner some insight into comparative philology. Thus, for instance, his attention might be called to the identity between the Latin case-ending of the genitive, as seen in the *is* of the third declension, and the *s*, preceded by the sign of elision, which belongs to the English possessive. The pronouns especially would afford an excellent field for philological comparisons and illustrations. The close resemblance between Latin, Greek, and English pronouns must sometimes strike schoolboys while fagging at their grammar, but the impression is too faint, if no notice is taken of it by the teacher, to excite much curiosity, or to stimulate any further inquiry.

Passing from grammar to vocabulary, a leading point would be to explain the laws of transition, in obedience to which a Greek or Latin word has passed into the English language, and become naturalised there. Thus not only would the attention of the student be called to the fact that our language has been greatly enriched by contributions from the Latin, but he would also be led to see the processes through which such

contributions have been made. Thus it might be pointed out that the change of the termination *tas* into *ty* has been sufficient to Anglicise (if one may use the word) a great many Latin nouns, as, for example, *dignitas, majestas, pietas*, &c. So again, the Latin verb has been a contributor to English through two of its conditions. The infinitive mood, stripped of its conjugational suffix, has in very many cases wakened up to find itself at home in England. Such words as *attend, discern, solicit, consider*, are illustrations. On the other hand we have just as freely taken the supine as the basis of our borrowed stock in trade. By way of examples we may mention *accept, exempt, prevent, conduct*.

Now to trace out the laws which govern this emigration of words, to accumulate examples, and to follow each word down to its original condition, is not only an exercise in the science of language in the abstract, but an exercise also which will, at one and the same time, teach the pupil a good deal of Latin, and make him more thoroughly intimate, more scientifically conversant, with his mother tongue.

Once more, the student's introduction to Syntax would be brought about by setting before him an easy passage of a Latin author. The teacher might call his attention to this, and lead him, through the knowledge already acquired of the inflections, to pick out the nouns and verbs. Then use might be made of the method of analysing sentences, which the general adoption of Mr Morell's little book has made so familiar to students of English. A thorough analysis of a few Latin sentences on the part of the teacher, for the benefit of his pupils, accompanied by a careful explanation of the relation of every attribute, the bearing of every clause, the connection of every case, would let a great deal of daylight into the learner's mind, not only with reference to the syntax of that particular language, but as regards the laws of language in general. The scholar might soon be brought to practise this exercise for himself, and we do not speak without a warrant, when we say that the effect of it would be to make his progress both swift and solid.

As we contend for the simultaneous teaching of English and of Latin grammar, so we argue that English authors and Latin authors should be read together. As soon as the pupil has mastered the elements of grammar in the two languages, let him begin to study an easy Latin reading book. At the same time place in his hands an English author, adapted to his age and capacity, of good tone, and pure, graceful style. The two books should be studied very much in the same way,

and should be made to act and react on each other. Thus all Latin words that have supplied English derivations should be noticed, the words derived from them should be written down, and the meaning and use of those words ascertained and illustrated. So also all words derived from the Latin occurring in the English author, should be pointed out, and traced to their original, and these originals should be collected into a vocabulary, and committed to memory. By this double process the scholar would at once increase his stock of Latin words, and make himself accurately acquainted with the exact force and meaning of a great many words in his own language. In like manner, by applying the process of analysis to both authors, and by careful observation of the various syntactical relations, mastery would be obtained over the structure of the two languages, and the points of difference between them would be vividly apprehended. To this end peculiarities of idioms and special phrases should be marked, and to promote thoroughness and accuracy, as well as to assist the memory, free use should be made of manuscript note-books. As the pupil advanced in knowledge and intelligence, he would be competent to undertake this contemporaneous and parallel study of two authors of the highest class. It would then obviously be expedient to observe certain rules and principles of association in selecting the books to be read in unison. Thus, for example, there would be a natural fitness in taking together a book of Virgil's "Georgics" and a book of Thompson's "Seasons." Many parallel passages would occur, many corresponding images would be met with, many cognate phrases and idioms would strike the reader. The English poet has indeed drunk deep at the fountains of his Roman predecessor. On the same principle, an oration of Cicero would yoke well with a speech of Burke, a book of Tacitus or Livy with a book of Clarendon or Robertson; Horace and Pope would prove cater-cousins and good comrades at the feast of reason; and the simple style and gentle ethics of Addison would harmonise very happily with the sober and practical philosophy, and the "temperatum dicendi genus," of the "De Officiis."

From the point of view in which we regard classical studies, as adapted to the circumstances and requirements of the great majority of those into whose education they must enter, we do not, as has already been implied, make much account of the practice of Greek or Latin composition. But we insist strongly on the pressing importance of composition in English, and we urge that frequent exercises of this kind should be incorporated

into the system of instruction recommended. Translation from Latin into English, though generally regarded only in its bearing on the study of Latin, might be made a very effective lesson in writing English. But to this end it is not enough that an accurate literal translation of a Latin passage should be produced. That literal translation should, so to speak, be re-translated into pure, free idiomatic English. And this double process will be found highly conducive to improvement in both languages.

And here we cannot, in passing, withhold the tribute of commendation due to the admirable directions for teaching Latin to be found in Roger Ascham's "Schoolmaster." Dr Johnson went so far as to say that nothing superior to them had ever been suggested or adopted, and it is not, we hope, impertinent or egotistical to say, that we can, from experience, vouch for their practical usefulness. The general nature of them may be presumed to be known to most readers of the *Museum*, and it is enough, therefore, to remind those who are interested in the subject, that their great feature is the process of double translation, translation from Latin into English, and re-translation of the same passage into Latin. In conjunction with this, however, the careful analysis of the sentences, and the noting and extraction of idioms and phrases, is strongly recommended and enforced. Ascham is, moreover, the avowed opponent of those tedious mechanical methods, those dry grinding processes, which are in favour with many instructors of youth. He plainly denounces the fashion of learning by rote huge collections of formularies and rules, as "tedious for the master, hard for the scholar, cold and uncomfortable for them both." We may, therefore, in some sort claim him as being, if not in letter, yet in spirit, an upholder of such views as we have ventured to put forth in this article. In his day an English literature did not exist. The languages of Greece and Rome included in themselves the sum of polite learning. Had old Ascham been living to see Shakespeare, Jonson, and Massinger, standing on a platform of equality with Æschylus, Aristophanes, and their fellows; Milton established as a worthy rival of Homer; Bacon, Locke, Berkeley, expounding philosophic theories as sublimely as Plato and Aristotle themselves; had he fallen on days when England could shew a long catalogue of historians before whose profound research, comprehensive vision, and graphic powers of narration, even Thucydides and Tacitus can scarcely maintain their long supremacy; he would not, we presume to think,—while acknowledging the unquestionable value of the classics in the work

of education,—have claimed for them that undivided authority and dominion over the youthful mind, between the ages of nine and nineteen, which they have hitherto possessed, and are likely, with some trifling abatements, to possess for some time longer. It will, doubtless, be remarked, that in setting forth the views of which this paper is the exponent, our observations and suggestions have turned chiefly on one of the two great languages which form the staple of higher mental culture. Much, however, that has been said about Latin, will apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to Greek. The latter, indeed, though, on its own merits, and for the sake of the literature of which it is the vehicle, more deserving of study than even Latin, has less immediate connection with our own language, and is, as a rule, more imperfectly learnt by ordinary school-boys.

In bringing these speculations to a close, it must be conceded that, according to the methods of teaching recommended, the attention of the student would necessarily be limited to a comparatively narrow field of reading. In fact, we insist on a little, *thoroughly worked out*. The portion of an author selected for study should be gone through with almost painful iteration, till the words are imprinted on the memory, the style and spirit infused into the mind. The pupil then would not, during his school course, run through anything like the number of Greek and Latin authors professedly read in grammar schools of any pretension, but we believe he would have a better and sounder acquaintance with Latin than most of those educated on the prevailing system. And, assuredly, by such processes as have been described, all the disciplinary power that exists in the study of language would have been, as it were, concentrated on his mind. He would not be a scholar able there and then to carry off the Craven or Ireland scholarship, but he would have a foundation of scholarship laid in his mind which, if his position and circumstances allowed, might serve as a point of departure for wider reading and deeper critical research; and, on the other hand, if—as would be the case with the majority of those in whose interest these remarks are offered—he had to pass from school to the business of life, he would carry with him a fair degree of mental training, and an acquaintance with the dead languages, sufficient in quantity, and of the right sort in quality, to promote a deeper and more thorough understanding of that living language which, for the rest of his life, he would have to speak and write, and by help of which, and God's grace, he would have to do his life's work, and make his calling sure both here and hereafter.

NAPIER OF MERCHISTON.

WE suppose we are tolerably safe in hazarding the assertion that great names usually appear in clusters on the page of history. This fact is to be traced, as a secondary cause, to the awakening of an intellect which, but for the shaking of the age, would have slumbered on for ever. The well-known story of Achilles is applicable to the development of mental, no less than of physical, propensities. Achilles was disguised as a female, and instructed, for his safety, to act in accordance with his disguise. But the sage Ulysses, penetrated his secret and unmasked the man, by presenting to his notice, along with the ornaments appropriate to his dress, the armour suited to his sex and to his taste. The affectionate handling of the accoutrements detected the warrior.

In the same way, the discoveries of one man, laid before another, have drawn forth from him unsuspected propensities to kindred branches of inquiry. Thus, though the torch of truth is handed down from generation to generation, it seldom fails to kindle the brightest flames amongst those who first fanned it into light. In Italy, painting grew up "in a night," and Michael Angelo, Titian, Raphael, and Corregio—the four noblest painters, perhaps, after Apelles and Jéuxis—were all within a period of twenty years. In France, the drama raised itself with the same rapidity. Corneille, Racine, and Molière, the three greatest ornaments of the French stage, flourished together. The science of physical optics had languished for a century, when a gleam from the setting sun lighted up the windows of the Luxembourg, and in one generation the names of Malus, Biot, Brewster, Arago, Fresnel, Young, Cauchy, Fraunhofer, Airy, Herschel, Wheatstone, Stoke, are stamped with immortality. The science of astronomy had lain in a state of coma from Ptolemy to Copernicus. The wand of the Canon of Worms raised up almost simultaneously four masters, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, Galileo, and Napier,—the observer, the speculator, the discoverer, and the calculator,—a group complete in all its parts. The astronomical application of the telescope by Galileo, the discovery of two of the three great laws of planetary motion by Kepler, from Tycho's observations, and the invention of logarithms by Napier, are all crowded into a space of four years, 1610–1614.

It does seem to a pious mind to be anything

rather than the result of accident, that three intellects should, at the same period of the world's history, have been created in Italy, in Germany, in Scotland, so unlike, and yet so wonderfully fitted to unite into one mighty engine for raising the succeeding generations into that higher platform on which the drama of life is now being played; higher, at least, in its relation to the material universe.

We have already presented our readers with a brief sketch of the life and labours of Galileo and of Kepler. We come now to speak of our own countryman, Napier.

We trust no one imagines that astronomical discovery is due entirely to the keen eye or the quick touch of the observer; or that advance in the science is simply an advance in the power and delicacy of astronomical instruments. Such a conclusion would be very wide of the truth. The eye and the telescope are certainly necessary to the work, but the theory of the planets is elaborated in the closet, by the aid of that plebeian and unpoetical science known as arithmetic. Need it be added that the calculations of the astronomer are, at the best, painful and laborious? Well, perhaps, it had better be added. Let us mention a fact. In Damoiseau's *Memoir* on the motion of the Moon, there occur seventy-five consecutive pages, quarto pages, closely printed, of mathematical symbols, without a single intervening word except the copulative conjunction, or something equally trivial—a mile of formulæ! How are such fearful characters to be translated into numbers? The thing would have been impossible but for the invention of logarithms, whereby multiplication is converted into addition, and division into subtraction. Does any one murmur, Is that all; multiplication converted into addition, and division into subtraction! Is that all? Yes, that is all, and quite enough. Inventions like logarithms are the wings of science, just as the steam engine and the telegraph are the wings of industry. By their aid remote districts are brought into rapid communication, and the resources of each district are developed and applied. When the respective parts can be disposed of quickly and easily, time and strength suffice for the undertaking of a vast whole.

The inventor of logarithms, John Napier of Merchiston, was a Scotchman; a true son of the soil. His vocation, as such, was theology; his recreation, science. Long before he had begun to

think of logarithms, he had published his *Scripture Commentaries*. The preface is somewhat characteristic. "In my tender years and barge," he says, "at St Andrews, having contracted a loving familiarity with a certain gentleman, a papist, and on the other part, being attentive to the sermons of that worthy man of God, Maister Christopher Goodman, teaching upon the Apocalypse, I was so moved in admiration against the blindness of the papists, that not only burstit I out continually in reasoning against my said familiar (friend), but I determined with myself to employ my study and diligence to search out the remanent mysteries of that holy book, as to this hour I have been doing, at all such times I might conveniently have occasion."

With Napier's theology, however, we have nothing to do. Both it and he would have been forgotten long ago, but for his secular labours. We mean no disrespect to the "Plain discovery." It may be true that it anticipates many of Newton's apocalyptic explanations. Whatever its value may be, the verdict of two centuries and a half has condemned it to the confines of oblivion. Napier was emphatically an arithmetician. The invention by which his name became known amongst the vulgar, was what he called his *bones*. They were little rods, employed, like the abacus of the ancients, or the swan-pan of the Chinese, for the purpose of facilitating arithmetical computations. No doubt Napier was generally laughed at by the citizens of Edinburgh, his contemporaries. He may have been feared too, for he had the reputation of being an adept at the black art, and, as we shall see presently, he had earned the reputation fairly. These bones, you may be sure, were regarded by the rustics as something very different from the multiplication table. The author of *Hudibras*, when he rummages the astrologer's pocket, turns out, amongst other things,

"A moon-dial with Napier's bones,
And several constellation stones,
Engraved in planetary hours
That over mortals had strange powers."

It is to be presumed Butler had a very indistinct idea of what Napier's bones were, and that it was their name rather than their use which procured them the honour of a place in the catalogue of the astrologer's stock-in-trade. Men like Napier were fair game for the witty. Astronomy and astrology were, in the eyes of the vulgar, one and the same science. So Napier was dubbed astrologer. But did he deserve the title? Truth compels us, unwillingly, to confess he did. Truth compels us to admit that it was not the vulgar alone who connected astrology with astronomy.

Superstition was the favourite child of ignorance, and she was nursed so carefully, and brought up so respectably, that she became wedded to learning. It was an unholy union certainly, but it took place, notwithstanding. Tycho Brahe kept a sooth-saying idiot; Kepler cast nativities, and spent much time in the construction of prophesying almanacs, nay, to his skill in the art of astrology he owed his connection with the camp of Wallenstein; and John Napier, Scotland's pride and boast, had most certainly (why not?) an astrological bump in his cranium.

Mr Mark Napier, who deserves the best thanks of all good Scotchmen, by the publication of an elaborate biography of his namesake, has presented the world with a curious document, dated July 1594, being no other than a contract or agreement between John Napier of Merchistoun and Robert Logan of Restalrig, the greatest rogue unchanged, whereby the former undertook to exert all his craft and ingine (? ingenium) to find out for the latter certain treasures hid, or supposed to be hid, in Fast Castle, the Wolf's Craig of the Bride of Lammermoor. The document stipulates, amongst other things, "that the said Robert shall give unto the said John the just third part of whatsoever treasure the said John shall find, or which shall be found by his means and ingine, within or about the said place of Fast-castle. And for the said John's sure return and safe back-coming therewith to Edinburgh without being spuilzit (spoiled) of the said third part, or otherwise harmit in body or gear, the said Robert shall make the said John safe convoy and convey and accompany him safely back to Edinburgh, when the said John being safely returned, shall, in presence of the said Robert, cancel and destroy his present contract," and so on. (Signed) "Robert Logan of Restalrig. John Neper of Merchiston." Napier seems to have had misgivings about his safe return, and if the character of Logan be not much misstated, he had ample ground for misgivings. We know nothing further about the issue of this transaction. We know not what amount of good or ill accrued to Napier from his association with Logan, whether his knowledge of the stars enabled him to track out the hidden treasure, or whether, having discovered it, Logan spuilzied him of his just third-part thereof. History is silent on the subject. All we do know is this, that in a lease granted by Napier two years after this transaction, he specially forbids his tenant to sublet any of the property to any one of the surname of Logan.

This little episode in the history of Napier may perhaps help us to admire still more the brilliancy

of that intellect which could shine so highly in an age remarkable for mental mist. It may be that Napier's conviction of his error impelled him to closer attention to his abstract studies. For the next twenty years he devoted himself to the perfection of his logarithms, undergoing an amount of monotonous toil, which, in these days of progress, we can hardly understand. Napier was a good man and a devout. He laboured as one who loves his work for his work's sake. In 1614, when, to use his own words, his body was "now almost spent with sickness," he published his logarithms. The *Canon mirificus* contains his heart's blood, and is his imperishable monument. Napier did not long survive. He died before the murmur of the applauding voices of remote nations could reach his ear. His prophetic soul perhaps kindled at the homage of countless ages which should rise in social position by his labours, but the heart of flesh had no part in the joy of the heart of love.

If the name of Napier be not the greatest name on the page of scientific history; if the invention of logarithms be not, as Sir John Leslie declares it is, "the noblest conquest ever achieved by man;" if Scott and Knox and Burns and Watt are fresher names to Scottish ears, there is no invention of such undivided originality, none of such wide-spread utility, as the invention of logarithms. The name of Napier circulates amongst nations where Knox and Burns and Scott are scarce heard of. These men lived for Scotland, for Britain, Napier lived for the whole human race. Whilst we honour these great men with abundant honour, let us not suffer the breadth of Napier's fame to shut out the recognition of his right to be numbered amongst the noblest of the Scottish worthies.

Most of our readers may stop here. But as the principle on which Napier constructed his logarithms is not generally known, and particularly as modern readers are often puzzled with the complexity of that number whose logarithm is unity, which is sometimes inaccurately termed the base of the Napierian logarithms, it may not be uninteresting to set down very roughly and without elaboration, a set of numbers calculated on Napier's principle. These numbers, when fully developed, are known as Napier's logarithms, but in reality they are more properly the complements of those logarithms. We write down, then, in one column, a series of fractions, differing by a constant small amount—the smaller the better. We shall suppose it .01. This is one column of logarithms. To obtain the corresponding numbers, we start with 1 as the number whose loga-

rithm is 0, and obtain the successive numbers by taking each as the product of the last and the given logarithms, difference, .01. We have thus—

Logarithms.	Numbers.
.00	1
.01	1.01
	.0101
.02	1.0201
	.010201
.03	1.030301
	.010303
.04	1.040604
	.010406
.05	1.051010
	.010510
.06	1.061520
	.010615
.07	1.072135
	.010721
.08	1.082856
	.010828
.09	1.093684
	.010936
.10	1.104620

If we continue our process we shall at length, with very little labour, obtain the number of which the logarithm is 1. As a very rude approximation, we will now advance by intervals of .1 instead of .01. Thus—

Logarithms.	Numbers.
.1	1.104620
	.110462
.2	1.215082
	.121508
.3	1.336590
	.133659
.4	1.470249
	.147026
.5	1.617273
	.161727
.6	1.779000
	.177900
.7	1.956900
	.195690
.8	2.152590

8	2.152590
	215259
9	2.367849
	236784
1	2.604633

So that, very roughly estimated, the logarithm of 2.6 is 1. By taking intervals to millionths instead of to hundredths and tens, we shall get 2.71828, a number which, in modern times, is of constant occurrence, as the base of the system founded on Napier's.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE HIGHER SCHOOLS IN PRUSSIA.*

(Compiled by the Secretary from materials supplied by the Prussian Minister of Education.)



THE higher schools which exist in Prussia are divided, generally speaking, into two classes, called respectively *Gymnasien*† and *Real-Schulen*.

These two classes differ from each other in their object, the business of the former being to prepare boys for the universities, and for those pursuits in life to which university studies are a necessary introduction; that of the latter to educate boys not designed for the universities. They differ, therefore, also in their course of instruction, the studies of the latter being of a more "positive and objective" kind than those of the former. But they do not differ in the principles on which their respective *curricula* are framed; that principle being, in each case, to aim at the thorough preparation and cultivation of the mind for its future work, whatever that work may be, rather than at the imparting of such knowledge as may be immediately and practically useful. They are not *Fachschulen*—not mere places of training for particular callings or professions. And they are, "before all things, German and Christian."‡

Below the *higher schools* are the *Mittel-Schulen*, and below these the *Elementar-Schulen*, both of which differ essentially from the classes above them in this respect, that they do not aim at giving a general education, but at imparting some necessary rudiments of practical knowledge.

There are 143 *Gymnasien* and 61 *Real-Schulen*

* Extracted from the Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Revenues of certain Colleges and Schools, and the Studies pursued and Instruction given therein; with an Appendix and Evidence. Vol. II.

† The title "*Gymnasium*" dates from 1812, when it was extended by authority to all schools of learning (*Gelehrte Schulen*), which were previously called Latin Schools, Lyceums, Colleges, &c.

‡ See *Unterrichts u. Prüfungs Ordnung der Real-Schulen u. höheren Bürgerschulen*, 1859. *Beilage* p. 3. There is an authoritative rule, dating from 1826, and still subsisting, that the lessons in all the schools should begin with prayer, and that the head masters and assistant should attend divine worship. *Preuss. Jahrbuch* for 1861

All, with few exceptions, are day-schools (*Externate*); but of the *Gymnasien*, some have boarding-houses (*Alumnate*) in connection with them, and three are exclusively boarding-schools (*Internate*), which is not the case with any of the *Real-Schulen*.

The curriculum (*Lehrplan*) of all the higher schools comprises instruction in the following subjects, viz., the Christian religion, the German, Latin, and French Languages, History, Geography, Mathematics, Natural Science, Writing, Drawing, Singing, Gymnastics. The basis (*Grundlage*) of the course in the *Gymnasien* is Latin, Greek, and Mathematics; that in the *Real-Schulen*, Mathematics, Physical Sciences, and Modern Languages. Both *Gymnasien* and *Real-Schulen* have six forms or classes, ascending from the sixth (*sexta*) to the first (*prima*), some of them having various subdivisions. Boys are not, as a general rule, admitted into the sixth or lowest form till they have completed their ninth year; and they are required to possess a knowledge of reading, writing, and ciphering. The whole course (*Schulcursus*) lasts from eight to ten years. There are other schools which in principle should be classified with the *Gymnasien* and *Real-Schulen* respectively, having the same course of instruction up to a certain point, but wanting the upper forms: these are called respectively *Progymnasien* and *höhere Bürgerschulen*. Most of the higher schools have a definite denominational character, which governs the selection of the directors and teachers. Of the 143 *Gymnasien*, 102 are Protestant (*Evangelisch*), 39 Catholic. Except, however, a few exclusively Protestant or Catholic Foundation-schools (which are boarding-schools), all the superior schools receive pupils of every religious denomination. There is perfect freedom in this respect: in some forms of some schools there are more Jews than Christians. This is especially the case in Posen and Silesia. As to the patronage and maintenance of these establishments, 62 *Gymna-*

sien are royal, 62 receive support from the State, which thus participates in the patronage of them, 20 are purely municipal (*Städtisch*), or supported for private foundations. Of the 61 *Real-Schulen*, one is royal, five others receive support from the State; the remainder are wholly maintained by the municipal bodies (*Städtische Communen*) to which they owe their existence. The number of the *Progymnasien* and *höhere Bürgerschulen* is comparatively small. They are chiefly municipal establishments (*Städtische Anstalten*). A few of them receive support from the State.

Private schools, embracing the complete curriculum of a *Gymnasium*, or of a *Real-Schule*, do not exist in Prussia. In every province, however, and in the larger towns, there are some private schools, whose curriculum ascends sometimes to the third form of the public school, and in rarer instances to the second.

The scarcity of private schools is attributed partly to the greater security which the public ones afford to parents for the efficient teaching and superintendence of their children; partly to the advantages in the way of admission into the civil service and the army, which are obtained by resorting to the public schools.

Thus, no person can enter himself as a student of any faculty at any university, nor qualify himself for a degree in theology, jurisprudence, or medicine, nor aspire to any office or employment in Church or State, for which a course, whether of three or of four years, at a university is a legal prerequisite, nor enjoy any of the public *beneficia* or exhibitions founded for the assistance of university students, unless he has passed with success a certain examination, called indifferently the *Maturitäts-prüfung* or *Abiturienten-prüfung*, which is held at a *Gymnasium*, conducted in a great measure by the masters of that *Gymnasium*, and arranged with direct reference to its studies. At the *Real-Schulen*, again, similar examinations are now held, called by the same names, and these latter examinations are the door of admission to various posts in the civil service, and to the corps of *chasseurs à cheval*; whilst there are other places and privileges of various kinds, such as admission to the public schools of music, mining, gardening, veterinary surgery, and the like, which are accessible only to young men who have attained a certain place, first, second, or third form, as the case may be, in a *Real-Schule*.

In the year 1860, the number of those who, after passing the final examination at a *Gymnasium*, went to the universities and applied themselves to the *Facultäts-studien*, was 1456. Their respective faculties were as follows:—

Theology	Protestant	335
	Catholic	360
	Jewish	1
Jurisprudence and <i>Cameral-wissenschaften</i>		249
Medicine		279
Philology and Philosophy		153
Mathematics and Natural Science		74

The number of those who entered the army, after passing the same examination, was 245. Here there has been a steady increase; it was 79 in 1859, and only 55 in 1858.

About 60 entered the *Bau-Academie*.

The total number who passed this final examination has mounted from 1382 in 1852 to 1759 in 1860.

Of the total number (8652) who passed within the last five years (1856 to 1860, inclusive)—

70 were under 17 years of age.

407	"	17
1252	"	18
2013	"	19
2959	"	20
2851 were over 20.		

The number of boys who, not having been at a *Gymnasium*, passed the final *gymnasial* examination, has decreased. It was in 1856, 248; in 1860 only 62.

The proportion of boys who passed through all the forms in a *Gymnasium* does not average more than 15 per cent. Many leave the middle forms or the highest but one (*secunda*) to enter upon commercial or industrial pursuits, or the inferior branches of the civil service. The same observation applies to the *Real-Schulen*, the upper forms of which, since young men do not go from them to the universities, are commonly passed by those only who wish to acquire a thorough scientific education with a view to industrial or professional pursuits—*e. g.*, for the departments of mining and agriculture—or to gain certain advantages in the army. The great majority do not get beyond the third form.

The few strictly commercial schools which exist in Prussia are private enterprises, which have obtained on the whole no great success. It is far more usual for men in trade (*Kauf-Leute*) to send their sons intended for a similar career to a *Gymnasium* or a *Real-Schule*. "Persons capable of forming a judgment among the commercial and industrial classes often express the opinion, as the result of their own experience, that a well-ordered general education (*ein geordneter allgemeiner wissenschaftlicher Unterricht*), without special regard to the boy's after-vocation, such as is afforded by the *Gymnasium*, and in a some-

what lesser degree by the *Real-Schule*, proves more practically useful, even for an industrial calling, than the instruction afforded by special professional schools. Young men liberally educated shew, as a general rule, after a short time, more capacity and sounder judgment even in practical pursuits than those who have had an exclusively practical training, and have made themselves masters of a superficial routine (*eine äusserliche Routine*)."

A census taken in 1858* shewed the following results:—

Public Schools.		Number of Boys.
Elementary schools	24,923	1,376,278
Middle schools	314	46,982
<i>Real-Schulen</i> and <i>höhere Bürgerschulen</i>	101	22,046
<i>Progymnasien</i>	33	3,346
<i>Gymnasien</i>	134	38,700
Private Schools.		
Private elementary schools	791	22,893
Higher private schools	151	6,255

The total number of persons of both sexes between the ages of 6 and 24 was 3,501,393.

In 1840 the number of boys attending the *Gymnasien* did not much exceed 20,000; in 1856 it was 35,645; at the beginning of the year 1861, 40,043.

The State has a legal right of supervision extending over all educational establishments, including private schools. Even in these no teacher can be appointed whose intellectual and moral qualifications have not been certified by authorised public officers. In every town there is a local superintending authority for education, to which the elementary schools and the higher private schools are subject. Most of the *Gymnasien* and *Real-Schulen* have a local body of school-curators (*Schul-Curatorium*), and all the schools of each province, as to all their affairs, internal and external, are under the supervision of a body of officers called the *Königlich-Provinzial-Schul-Collegium*. The *Schul-Räthe* of the several districts preside at the final examinations (of boys leaving school), and from time to time hold inspections of the superior schools within their district. Besides this, the Minister of Education directs, as often as he thinks proper, an extraordinary inspection, by his *technische Räthe*, of *Gymnasien*, *Real-Schulen*, &c., in different parts of the kingdom. By the reports which it is the duty of the provincial authorities to send in at fixed periods, he is kept acquainted with the condition and performances of the

schools, and issues such directions from time to time as he deems expedient. The general inspections above mentioned extend to all external and internal concerns of the schools, including their local situation, general management, and pecuniary condition, as well as the discipline, course of study, books, and method of teaching. The dismissal, as well as the appointment, of the teachers requires the consent of the State authorities, and sentence of dismissal may be pronounced by them, in case of proved incompetency or moral unworthiness, in conformity with an established disciplinary law which prescribes a regular judicial procedure, affording liberty for the party inculpated to make his defence, and allowing an appeal. The appeal is reserved exclusively to the ministry as a whole (*dem gesamten Staatsministerium*). Every person definitively appointed a teacher acquires a legal claim to a pension on dismissal for age or infirmity. This claim begins with the sixteenth year of service; the amount depends on the length of service, rising ultimately to three-fourths of the stipend.

To the question whether means exist of acquiring from official reports, published works, or other sources, accurate information respecting the management of these schools, their system of discipline and methods of instruction, it is answered that there is at present no official publication of this nature, but that one is now preparing and will probably appear very soon. An account of the regulations issued up to 1854 may be found in the second part of Von Rönne "*Das Unterrichtswesen des Preussischen Staats*," Berlin, 1855. Every *Gymnasium*, however, and every *Real-Schule* publishes annually its "*Programme*," which gives an accurate account of the tasks done (*Unterrichtspensa*), the number of boys, and all other matters interesting to parents or to the general public. The example set by Prussia in this respect has been followed by 23 other German States, including Austria; and there is a regular interchange of these "*programmes*" between them and Prussia. The interchange with Denmark (with the *Gymnasium* at Reikiavik in Iceland) has been stopped, on the side of Prussia, of late years. This practice has been very useful but the expense it occasions (about £2000 in 1860), and the accumulation of volumes in the school libraries will, it is apprehended, render some change inevitable.

The Programmes of the Berlin schools, 13 in number, are furnished as samples. They all begin with an essay or dissertation by one of the masters on some classical, historical, or scientific subject.

* Pr. Jahrb. p. 69

A detailed statement follows of the whole work of the year, the books and portions of books read, the themes or other compositions written, and the time consumed, and of the subjects and problems set at the final examination. There is also a short history of the school during the year, notices of the masters who have left, and biographical accounts of those who have come. The numbers and class distribution of the school are stated, and the fluctuations they have undergone; the names and ages of those who have passed the final examination; the time they have spent in the school and in the first forms respectively, and the faculty each has chosen; the books, instruments, &c., purchased for the library and the laboratory, &c.; the holidays; the ordinances or regulations which have been made by authority affecting the school; and there is a notice of the public examinations which will be held during the ensuing year. There is also a table shewing how the work is distributed among the various masters, and the number of hours during which each is engaged. In these tables it is to be observed that each master is commonly charged wholly or partially with some one subject, which he teaches in several distinct forms, being himself perhaps also the *Ordinarius* of a form.

The complete normal course of instruction (*der vollständige Normallehrplan*) followed in the *Gymnasien* is fixed by certain instructions issued by the Minister of Education (24th October 1837), and modified in some particulars by subsequent instructions of 7th January 1856. An abstract of these documents is subjoined.

ABSTRACT OF INSTRUCTIONS OF 24TH OCTOBER 1837 RESPECTING GYMNASIEN.

Admission and Qualifications.

Boys are not to be admitted under 10. The requisite qualifications are—

- a. To read fluently German and Roman text "*nicht allein mechanisch sondern auch logisch-richtig*," to know the parts of speech, and to be able to parse a simple sentence, and to write orthographically.
- b. Some facility in writing from dictation legibly and neatly.
- c. Practical facility in working the first four rules of simple arithmetic and the elements of fractions.
- d. Elementary knowledge of European geography.
- e. Familiarity with the history of the Old Testament and the life of our Saviour

f. First rudiments of drawing, with elementary geometry (*Geometrische Formenlehre*).

Subjects of Instruction.

The *Lehrgegenstände*, or subjects of instruction, in all *Gymnasien* are

Languages; German, Latin, and Greek.

Religion.

Philosophische Propädeutik (now abolished).

Mathematics, with Physics and Natural History.

Writing, Drawing, and Singing.

"The experience of centuries and the judgment of the intelligent declare that these subjects are eminently fitted to awaken, develop, and strengthen all the intellectual powers, and to supply to youth the requisite preparation for the thorough and thoughtful study of the sciences. This cannot, however, be said of Hebrew or of French. The former is useful as a special preparation for a special *Facultäts-Studium* (theology); the latter owes its elevation to the rank of a subject of public instruction, not so much to its intrinsic excellence and the *bildende Kraft ihres Baues* as to its utility for practical life." The two latter therefore are admitted on *external* grounds, the former from their real and intimate connection with the object for which the studies of the *Gymnasien* are pursued.

"Of these (the former) none can be subtracted from the circle of study without materially endangering the education of youth; and all propositions having that tendency have proved, on closer examination, to be impracticable and unsuitable to the object in view."

These several studies are to be kept with the strictest care in due harmony and proportion to each other; and it is only by unity and due subordination in the system and methods of instruction that the multiplicity of the *Lehrgegenstände* can be prevented from confusing and stupifying (*verwirren und abstumpfen*), as it is sometimes accused of doing, the learner's mind, and perhaps injuring his health.

It is with this object that Government has established for all *Gymnasien*, the system of forms and that of form-masters (*Klassenordnung und Klassenordnaria*), and this also is the main object of the regulations of this ordinance.

Method.

Cognate subjects are not, as heretofore, to be studied at separate hours, but in the same lesson-hours (*Stunden*), with or immediately following each other.

It is, therefore, advisable as well as practicable

that the following studies should be brought into close connection with each other.

Two Lower Forms.

Latin.	}	History.	}
German.	}	Geography.	}
		Naturbeschreibung	}

Middle and Upper Forms.

Mathematics	}	History.	}
Physics.	}	Geography.	}

Also, to prevent the distribution of the instruction of each class among too many teachers, not only the branches of one and the same subject, but also those subjects which stand related or in close neighbourhood to each other, should be entrusted as far as possible to one teacher in each form. Hence the same teacher should, as a rule, take charge of:—

In the two Lower Forms.

Latin.	}	History.	}
German.	}	Geography.	}
		Naturbeschreibung.	}

In the two Middle Forms.

Latin.	}	History.	}
Greek.	}	Geography.	}
French.	}		

In the two Upper Forms.

Latin.	}	History.	}
Greek.	}	Geography.	}
German.	}		

or,

Latin.	}		
Greek.	}		
French.	}		

And in the Highest Form.

Mathematics.	}		
Physics.	}		
Philos. Propäid.	}		

The 2 lower classes thus require only 2 teachers.

" 2 middle " " " 3 "

" 2 upper (at most) " " 4 "

Again, instead of studying several subjects at the same time and on different days in the week, it appears practicable and advisable to take them in regular succession; so that *e.g.*, whilst the same form in the same "half" (*Semester*) studies both Geography and History, the one should be read exclusively in the first months of it, and the other in the last, and the same division might be made in the case of Arithmetic and Geometry, and of Latin and Greek. And as to the two last, where one form in one Semester reads both a prose writer and a poet, the prose writer should be read exclusively in the first half of the Semester and the poet in the second.

Selection of Masters.

The Royal Prussian *Schul-Collegien* are to select the Form-masters (*Ordinarii**) with the greatest care, not only from the school in which the vacancy occurs, but from all the *Gymnasien* of the province, to transfer them as occasion may require, and take every care for the improvement of their position and circumstances. And the Minister undertakes to appoint as Directors of *Gymnasien* only persons who have earned distinction in the course of a long experience as *Klassen-ordinaria*.

Hours of Work.

Long experience, and the judgment of physicians, pronounce that for boys of average strength and health the hours of the *Gymnasien* are not too severe. These are—

4 hours daily in the forenoon,

2 hours in the afternoon, 4 days in the week.

A quarter of an hour's recreation in the open air being allowed after the second hour in the forenoon, and after the first hour in the afternoon, and a pause of 5 minutes at least between every other hour, with an interval of 2 hours between forenoon and afternoon. Sundays are free; there are 2 half-holidays a week, and the regular holidays (*Haupt-ferien*) subtract a sixth part of the year. With such periods of relaxation, 32 hours per week, in light, airy, and spacious school-rooms, properly furnished with tables and benches (*Subsellien*), cannot be too much; the Minister sees therefore no reason to diminish the school hours, but strictly enjoins that they be in no case and under no pretext exceeded.

Arrangement of Lessons.

Each *Gymnasium* is allowed to adopt such an arrangement of the various lessons as may be deemed most suitable to its own circumstances and requirements. The Instructions have annexed to them, however, a scheme, designed to serve as a guide and model (*zur leitenden Norm*). (This scheme, with the subsequent modifications, will be found at the end of the Abstract of the Instructions of 1856. The figures denote the hours to be devoted in each week to each subject.) This scheme is not obligatory as a whole, but there are some points on which no deviation from it is allowed. The number of hours which it assigns

* The *Ordinarius* or Master of a Form stands in nearly the same relation to his form as the Head Master (*Rector* or *Director*) to the whole school. It is his duty to maintain unity and proportion in the teaching of the form, and he has also the moral and spiritual charge (*Seelsorge*) of the boys in it. It has been considered advisable that the functions of *Ordinarius* should be united with those of teacher of religion to the form. Jahrb. 160.

to Religion, Languages (and particularly to Classics), and to Mathematics, must not be diminished, these studies being the most important factors of the result which the education of the *Gymnasien* has in view. French is not to be begun below the third form, one new language (Greek) having already a place in the fourth, and the subordinate object at which French teaching aims—a practical acquaintance with a useful tongue—being attainable at the cost of two hours a week during the six years which, as a rule, should be spent in the three upper forms. Natural History may be substituted for Physics in the second form. Boys who have a special talent and inclination for Drawing or Singing are to be allowed to pursue them in the upper as well as in the lower forms. It is recommended that, to avoid confusing the boys' minds, two successive hours should be assigned, where it is practicable, to one subject, so that three, or at most four subjects, be taken in the day, and that the subjects requiring the closest attention should occupy the morning hours.

Work done at Home.

This is a very important part of the studies of the *Gymnasien*, and great care is to be taken that it be effective, and on the other hand that it occupy not too much of the boys' spare time. It affords the best test of the degree to which the boy has apprehended what he is taught and has made it his own. It should consist partly of tasks set and looked over; but a portion of time, varying according to the boy's form and capacity, should always be left for private reading of Greek, Latin, and French classics, in which the office of the teacher is rather to guide than to compel. The general subjects to be given for home-work are to be settled at the beginning of each half by the Masters in conference, and distributed by months, weeks, and days. There must be a task book for each form, so that the tasks set and the amount of time thus engaged may be always ascertainable at a glance by the Form-Master or the Director. The Master of each form is bound to look over the tasks of his whole form once a month at least, and the Director must once a month at least look over all the tasks of some one form. He is strictly enjoined to be vigilant in restraining the practice of setting for German and Latin essays subjects of too abstract a character; and of which the boys have no knowledge, to bring out "what are called their own thoughts" (*bei welchen der Schüler über ganz abstracte oder ihm unbekannte Gegenstände sogenannte eigene Gedanken produciren soll*), a practice, the Instruc-

tions say, which is too common, but which can but torment the pupil and is discreditable to the teacher. It is the duty of the latter, on the contrary, not only to give a theme which the boy can in some degree master (*einigermassen beherrschen*), but also to explain clearly the point of view from which he wishes it treated.

Progress from Form to Form.

In each of the three lower forms every boy should remain one year, a period not long enough to weary and discourage him, yet long enough to make him feel the difficulty of the form-work, and enable him to master it thoroughly without an undue strain upon his powers. In each of the three upper forms the regular period is two years, but as to this no absolute rule can be laid down. At a more advanced age it is not necessary to guard so carefully against over-exertion as it is in the lower forms, and a boy's rise may therefore be accelerated by ability and industry. Promotion, however, must depend on proficiency, not in one branch of study only, but in all; not that equal progress is required in all, but no boy can rise from one form to another unless in all the principal subjects he has reached that grade of knowledge which the standard of the higher form requires.

Gymnastics.

Gymnastics are not compulsory; but it is desirable that the opportunity for such exercises as conduce to health and activity, under a competent teacher, should be afforded to those boys who, or whose parents, wish for it. The expense may be paid either by a small extra fee from those who practise, or by a trifling addition to the quarterly payments received from all the scholars.

Manner of Teaching.

It is a frequent subject of complaint, that whilst in the elementary schools a remarkable advance has been made during the present century in the method and practice of instruction, this improvement has not extended to the higher schools. The younger masters in the *Gymnasien*, it is alleged, do not pay sufficient attention to the difficult art of teaching (*die schwere Kunst des Unterrichtens*); they are too apt, instead of thoroughly grounding their scholars, to overwhelm them with a mass of undigested knowledge which they cannot assimilate; and they try rather to lecture like University Professors than to teach like schoolmasters; their instructions want life and animation; they fail to accommodate themselves to the capacity of young minds, and they

are unable to penetrate, keep on the alert, and handle successfully large masses of boys; and they are too apt to attribute the unsatisfactory results which too often follow, especially as regards proficiency in the classics, in German, and in history, to the stupidity and idleness of their pupils instead of the right cause. The Minister cannot and does not undertake to decide how far these accusations are just; all that he can do is to place them without disguise and in the strongest light before the eyes of those whom they concern. The teachers, by assiduous attention, careful study of the best methods and examples, and diligent practice; the Directors by watchful supervision, by frequently taking forms themselves, and by counsel and suggestions, given at the *Lehrer-conferenzen*, and to the aspirants during their trial year; the *Schul-collegien*, by a judicious selection and promotion of teachers, by introducing the best school-books, and by making use of the opportunities afforded by examinations and periodical inspections, may remove all pretext for these charges, and they are earnestly enjoined to do so.

INSTRUCTIONS OF 7TH JANUARY 1856.

Modifications of prior Scheme.

Philosophische Propädeutik is no longer to count as a separate branch. The substance (*wesentliche Inhalt*) of it, viz., the elements of logic, may be included in the teaching of German. The two hours of German in Form I. are therefore increased to three; but the *Collegien* are allowed, if they think proper, to entrust the subject to the mathematical teachers, and to increase the time assigned to mathematics accordingly.*

Religion.—The two hours are increased to three in Forms V. and VI., to give time for Bible reading and Bible history, and for catechetical instruction. If the number in form be very small, the time may still be two hours.

Latin and German: being entrusted to one teacher for each of the two lowest Forms, 12 hours a week are enough for the two. Where the number in Form is large, and the division of the subjects between the two teachers inevitable, three hours may be given to German.

French is to begin in Form V., and the hours in that form to be three.

For *History and Geography* the hours in Forms I. and IV. to be three instead of two. In V. and VI. historical instruction is to be confined to Bible history and to those facts to the imparting

of which the Geographical instruction (two hours weekly) gives an opening.

Natural history in the Fifth and Sixth Forms is to be omitted wherever, in the opinion of the *Collegium*, the school does not possess a teacher capable of making it intelligible and interesting to young boys. In such case the Sixth will give one hour more to Geography and the Fifth one hour more to Cyphering. The Geographical teacher should, however, take occasion to bring in the subject in dealing with his own. It is to be omitted in the Fourth, since both Greek and Mathematics begin in this Form. If there is no competent teacher of natural science for the Third Form, one additional hour is to be given to history and one to French. The history of Brandenburg and Prussia is always to form part of the work of the Third.

Writing is omitted in the Fourth Form. Teachers of all forms above the Third are to be particularly attentive in requiring all school-work to be fairly written; and on this, as well as on other accounts, the written work is to be kept within its proper limits.

Hebrew, Singing, and Gymnastics are omitted in the new scheme, because the time given to them is wholly or partially out of school hours.

No deviations to be allowed.

Deviations from the scheme are not henceforth to be allowed, except such as have been first submitted to the Minister of Education, and received his sanction.

No dispensation from the study of Greek is hereafter to be allowed, except with the approval of the Provincial *Collegium*, in small towns where there is not, besides the *Gymnasium*, a *Real-schule* or a *Höhere Bürger-Schule* in which Latin is taught. Whenever such a dispensation is granted the boy is to be informed that he is thereby excluding himself from the final (*abiturienten*) examination.

These Instructions, like the others, conclude with an urgent appeal to Directors and Teachers of schools to amend the defects complained of in the manner and practice of teaching; to bear constantly in mind that the work of every school, and of every form, has its single aim, and requires that all its parts should be harmonised and kept in their due proportion and relation to each other; to keep, as far as possible, in each form, the same work in the hands of the same teacher: to limit the quantity of written essays and exercises, and avoid subjects which the boys are unable to master; to teach thoroughly rather than to teach much; to stimulate and test by

* This subject was introduced under the influence of Hegel, in 1825.

their questions not only the memory but the powers of comprehension, thought, and combination, and to make the reading of the classics not a mere exercise of grammatical and lexicographical knowledge, but an introduction to the substance and spirit of the great writers of anti-

quity. For this latter purpose it is recommended that the boys should be more frequently called upon to give a clear and connected account of the contents of selected portions of these authors, which, it is added, might usefully be done in Latin.

SCHEME OF 1837.							SCHEME OF 1856.*						
SUBJECTS.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	SUBJECTS.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	Religion	2	2	2	2	3	3
German	2	2	2	2	4	4	German	3	2	2	2	2	2
Latin	8	10	10	10	10	10	Latin	8	10	10	10	10	10
Greek	6	6	6	6	—	—	Greek	6	6	6	6	—	—
French	2	2	2	—	—	—	French	2	2	2	2	3	—
History and Geography	2	3	3	2	3	3	History and Geography	3	3	3	3	2	2
Mathematics	4	4	3	3	—	—	Mathematics and Arithmetic	4	4	3	3	4	4
Arithmetic and Elementary Geometry	—	—	—	—	4	4	Physics	2	1	—	—	—	—
Physics	2	1	—	—	—	—	Natural History	—	—	2	—	(2)	(2)
Philos. Propädeutik	2	—	—	—	—	—	Drawing	—	—	—	2	2	2
Natural History	—	—	2	2	2	2	Writing	—	—	—	—	3	3
Drawing	—	—	—	2	2	2							
Writing	—	—	—	—	3	3							
Singing	—	—	2	2	2	2							
Total Hours	30	30	32	32	32	32	Total	30	30	30	30	30	28(27)
Hebrew in the case of boys intended for Theology	2	2	—	—	—	—							

In the teaching of the *Gymnasien* the boy's future vocation is never taken into account, except in the article of Hebrew. It is deemed to be of the highest importance that the fundamental elements of a good general education should be imparted, without reference to the future practical application of the knowledge thus bestowed. School Directors and Teachers are expressly forbidden, for instance, to lower or vary the general standard of work in the case of boys intended for the army. On the other hand, the individual capacity of each boy is to be considered as far as possible. Thus in the Final Examinations superior proficiency in mathematics is allowed to compensate for inferiority in languages, and *vice versa*.

French (as has been seen) is obligatory at the *Gymnasien*; both French and English at the *Real-Schulen*. The standard for both is fixed by the requirements of the Final Examination. To impart the power of speaking these languages fluently is not deemed the main object of instruction; such a power is attainable only in a very moderate degree by boys at public schools, taught

in large classes. The business of such schools is rather to give that sound grammatical knowledge and familiarity with the vocabulary which are necessary for correct speaking as well as for correct writing, and also some acquaintance with French and English literature. The methods of teaching consist chiefly in oral repetitions of grammar and construing, and in written translations from German done at home (*Exercitien*), and in school without grammar or dictionary (*Extemporalien*).

* It may be convenient to add here the Scheme laid down in 1859 for the *Real-Schulen*.

SUBJECTS.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Religion	2	2	2	2	3	3
German	3	3	3	3	4	4
Latin	3	4	5	6	6	8
French	4	4	4	5	5	—
English	3	3	4	—	—	—
Geography and History	3	3	4	4	3	3
Natural Science	6	6	2	2	2	2
Mathematics & Arithmetic	5	5	6	6	4	5
Writing	—	—	—	—	2	3
Drawing	3	2	2	2	2	2
Total	32	32	32	32	31	30

THE BURGH SCHOOLS OF SCOTLAND HALF A CENTURY AGO.



VERY one who knows anything of the earlier intellectual history of Scotland, has probably made up his mind to the fact, that our existing provisions for the higher instruction, even with the trivial additions which have been made to them within the last few years, are very far from being absolutely, and still further from being relatively, to our material resources, on a par with those of our ancestors.

National life cannot stand still, and it need not astonish us greatly if a nation whose latest effort in this direction, on anything like an extensive scale, was the foundation of the University of Edinburgh in 1582, has not kept its place. Pretty nearly all that we have yet accomplished, even with reference to the universities, is to have recognised their imperfections, to remodel and complete some portions of their external machinery. But in *motive power* they are still miserably defective, and if their shortcomings in this respect are really to be supplied, we must be up and doing on a very different scale from anything of which the Endowment Association, even under so indefatigable and enlightened a leader as Dr Muir, yet gives any substantial promise. It will not be the endowment of a few small fellowships that will save the honour of a country, which has no ultimate prizes to offer, and which leaves the Principal of its metropolitan university, who, in the eyes of foreigners, is the highest official representative of its intellectual life, with a provision which few sheriff-substitutes would be wise to accept.

But it is not of the universities that we desire to speak on the present occasion. Greatly as they have degenerated from their original position relatively to the community, their absolute decadence has been by no means so great as that of the burgh schools. That the present position of the grammar schools of Scotland contrasts very badly with that which they occupied two or three centuries ago, is known on all hands. Nobody imagines that 300 boys, many of them the sons of the principal nobility and gentry, now attend the Grammar School of Perth, as was the case under Andrew Simpson's rectorship, between 1550 and 1560; or that Greek and Hebrew are now taught in "the fair city" by any successor equivalent to John Row, the papal ex-nuncio. Even proud Eton herself would fight somewhat shy of a comparison with a school which was taught in *Latin*, and boarding-houses in which

nothing was *spoken but French*. But does anybody ever imagine that these schools have fallen off during the present century, and that the very school which I have mentioned has suffered, within the last sixty years, a degradation in character scarcely less conspicuous than that which had been gradually taking place between that period and the Reformation? Those acquainted with the district may probably have heard assertions to some such effect from old pupils of the school, but it was only the other day that an irrefragable proof of the correctness of their testimony fell into my hands, in the shape of an old number of the so-called Perthshire Register,—the local Almanack for 1806. In that interesting monument of what is, too rapidly, alas! becoming a bygone generation, I find the following entry:—

"Plan of Education.—At the academy are taught all the branches of accountanship, all the branches of mathematics, under which are included Euclid's elements, conic sections, trigonometry—plane and spherical, algebra, fluxions, all kinds of mensuration, land surveying, gauging, navigation, fortification, geography, with the uses of the globes, projections of the sphere, dialling, perspective, gunnery, &c., astronomy, and a full course of *natural philosophy, as also the outlines of a course of logic and moral philosophy.*"

"The hours of attendance are so arranged as to suit students of all descriptions. Regular students must observe that the 1st of October is the best time to enter, but arrangements are now so made as to accommodate young men of some previous education, although they should enter two or three months after that period.

"Mr G. Wright (the assistant) has private classes for teaching arithmetic and book-keeping, as well as aiding and forwarding the students in the public classes of the academy, directing their fair books, &c."

This somewhat formidable *Real-Schule* was manned by a rector and an assistant, with drawing and painting master, French master, &c., as an accompanying chorus. But, what is more to our purpose, the *Grammar School*, which was a separate establishment, devoted exclusively to classics, was conducted by a rector and two doctors.

Now, let us contrast this with the same school in its present condition, of which the rector of the academy has had the kindness to furnish us with a statement. It appears that there is still a Rector and an assistant in the Academy, but the staff of

the Grammar School has been reduced to a single teacher, whose whole income amounts to the surely very inadequate sum of £150 to £180 a year. The branches taught by the Rector of the Academy, are mathematics, natural philosophy, and chemistry; and jointly with his assistant, the higher branches of arithmetic, book-keeping, physical geography, and various other branches of popular science. The period of attendance on the Academy, or mathematical department of the school, has continued, as formerly, to be two sessions of ten months, but that of the Grammar School has been reduced from five years to four; the only substitute for the fifth, or Rector's class proper, being a class taught one hour daily, "for such pupils as wish to continue the study of classics for a longer period." The Rector of the Academy is acknowledged as head of the whole institution, but his powers as Rector are merely nominal, and the Grammar School, even in its mutilated condition, continues to be practically a separate establishment.

From this statement the reader will perceive, as he probably would have anticipated from the practical character of the age in which it is his privilege to live, that the mathematical and physical has kept its place somewhat better than the classical, historical, and ethical department. The material element, as usual, has turned the spiritual element out of doors. Chemistry has been substituted for some other branch of physical science—we hope not for the higher mathematics—but "the outlines of a course of logic and moral philosophy," of which the very mention was a merit, and which, if taught with any degree of intelligence, must have given to the course of instruction something of the character of an imperfect university curriculum, well suited to the requirements of those who, though not intended for the learned professions, were destined by their birth, their fortunes, or their ambition, to occupy the position of gentlemen, have been quietly dropped from the old "plan of education." The Academy has thus become a school of a lower class; but, in

the hands of its present Rector at all events, it is pretty certain to lose nothing of its efficiency for the purposes for which it is now designed. But the Grammar School has suffered a *capitis diminutio* of a more formidable kind. The *two doctors* are gone altogether, and the one Rector who rules nobody, is left in solitary penury to teach such pupils as he can gather, in all the various stages of advancement that they may chance to have reached, and make the best that he can of them for four years. Such instruction, for a period so limited, must of necessity produce just those results which, in so many classical schools at the present day, serve no other purpose but to bring classical learning into disrepute. Let the Provost of Perth shew himself worthy of the spurs which his Sovereign has conferred on him, by delivering his fellow-townsmen from the great reproach of wasting an inheritance which their ancestors have cherished for seven centuries.

The Earl of Harrowby, the other day, in addressing the trustees of the Chipping Campden Grammar School, stated it as his hope that the first object of the Commission about to issue, would be to evoke the zeal of the local authorities, and of the wealthier inhabitants of the districts in which such venerable institutions exist, and thus to "throw health and vigour into our old grammar schools." One argument which he particularly pressed was their age, "because they were old." "It was," he said, "a feeling deeply planted in the human heart to be attached to anything that had long existed; and, moreover, there was a presumption thence derivable, that such institutions were better suited to the wants of this country than any net-work of newly-invented schools, which, acting on continental principles, the central authority of the State could possibly stretch over it." The school in favour of which the Earl of Harrowby urged this claim, dated back to 1487, whereas we have authentic knowledge of the schools of Perth in 1173, more than three centuries earlier!

JAMES LORIMER.

OBJECT-LESSONS.*

PASSING on to object-lessons, which manifestly form a natural continuation of this primary culture of the senses, it is to be remarked that the system commonly pursued is wholly

at variance with the method of nature, as exhibited alike in infancy, in adult life, and in the course of civilisation. "The child," says M. Marcel, "must be *shewn* how all the parts of an object are connected," &c.; and the various manuals of these object-lessons severally contain lists of the facts which the child is to be *told* respecting each of the things

* From "Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical." By Herbert Spencer. London: G. Manwaring. 1861.

put before it. Now it needs but a glance at the daily life of the infant to see that all the knowledge of things which is gained before the acquirement of speech is self-gained, that the qualities of hardness and weight, associated with certain appearances, the possession of particular forms and colours by particular persons, the production of special sounds by animals of special aspects, are phenomena which it observes for itself. In manhood, too, when there are no longer teachers at hand, the observations and inferences hourly required for guidance, must be made unhelped; and success in life depends upon the accuracy and completeness with which they are made. Is it probable, then, that while the process displayed in the evolution of humanity at large is repeated alike by the infant and the man, a reverse process must be followed during the period between infancy and manhood, and that, too, even in so simple a thing as learning the properties of objects? Is it not obvious, on the contrary, that one method must be pursued throughout? And is not nature perpetually thrusting this method upon us, if we had but the wit to see it, and the humility to adopt it? What can be more manifest than the desire of children for intellectual sympathy? Mark how the infant, sitting on your knee, thrusts into your face the toy it holds, that you, too, may look at it. See when it makes a creak with its wet finger on the table, how it turns and looks at you, does it again, and again looks at you, thus saying, as clearly as it can, "Hear this new sound." Watch the elder children coming into the room, exclaiming, "Mamma, see what a curious thing," "Mamma, look at this," "Mamma, look at that," a habit which they would continue, did not the silly mamma tell them not to tease her. Observe that, when out with the nurse-maid, each little one runs up to her with the new flower it has gathered, to shew her how pretty it is, and to get her also to say it is pretty. Listen to the eager volubility with which every urchin describes any novelty he has been to see, if only he can find some one who will attend with any interest. Does not the induction lie on the surface? Is it not clear that we must conform our course to these intellectual instincts, that we must just systematise the natural process, that we must listen to all the child has to tell us about each object, must induce it to say everything it can think of about such object, must occasionally draw its attention to facts it has not yet observed, with the view of leading it to notice them itself whenever they recur, and must go on by and by to indicate or supply new series of things for a like exhaustive examination? Note the way in

which, on this method, the intelligent mother conducts her lessons. Step by step she familiarises her little boy with the names of the simpler attributes, hardness, softness, colour, taste, size, in doing which she finds him eagerly help by bringing this to shew her that it is red, and the other to make her feel that it is hard, as fast as she gives him words for these properties. Each additional property, as she draws his attention to it in some fresh thing which he brings her, she takes care to mention in connection with those he already knows, so that, by the natural tendency to imitate, he may get into the habit of repeating them one after another. Gradually, as there occur cases in which he omits to name one or more of the properties he has become acquainted with, she introduces the practice of asking him whether there is not something more that he can tell her about the thing he has got. Probably he does not understand. After letting him puzzle a while, she tells him, perhaps laughing at him a little for his failure. A few recurrences of this, and he perceives what is to be done. When next she says she knows something more about the object than he has told her, his pride is roused, he looks at it intently, he thinks over all that he has heard, and the problem being easy, presently finds it out. He is full of glee at his success, and she sympathises with him. In common with every child, he delights in the discovery of his powers. He wishes for more victories, and goes in quest of more things about which to tell her. As his faculties unfold, she adds quality after quality to his list, progressing from hardness and softness to roughness and smoothness, from colour to polish, from simple bodies to composite ones, thus constantly complicating the problem as he gains competence, constantly taxing his attention and memory to a greater extent, constantly maintaining his interest by supplying him with new impressions, such as his mind can assimilate, and constantly gratifying him by conquests over such small difficulties as he can master. In doing this she is manifestly but following out that spontaneous process which was going on during a still earlier period, simply aiding self-evolution, and is aiding it in the mode suggested by the boy's instinctive behaviour to her. Manifestly, too, the course she is adopting is the one best calculated to establish a habit of exhaustive observation, which is the professed aim of these lessons. To tell a child this, and to shew it the other, is not to teach it how to observe, but to make it a mere recipient of another's observations, a proceeding which weakens rather than strengthens its powers of self-instruction, which deprives it of the plea-

sures resulting from successful activity, which presents this all-attractive knowledge under the aspect of formal tuition, and which thus generates that indifference, and even disgust, not unfrequently felt towards these object-lessons. On the other hand, to pursue the course above described is simply to guide the intellect to its appropriate food, to join with the intellectual appetites their natural adjuncts, *amour propre*, and the desire for sympathy, to induce, by the union of all these, an intensity of attention which insures perceptions both vivid and complete, and to habituate the mind from the beginning to that practice of self-help which it must ultimately follow.

Object-lessons should not only be carried on after quite a different fashion from that commonly pursued, but should be extended to a range of things far wider, and continued to a period far later, than now. They should not be limited to the contents of the house; but should include those of the fields and the hedges, the quarry, and the sea-shore. They should not cease with early childhood; but should be so kept up during youth, as insensibly to merge into the investigations of the naturalist and the man of science. Here again we have but to follow Nature's leadings. Where can be seen an intenser delight than that of children picking up new flowers and watching new insects; or hoarding pebbles and shells? And who is there but perceives that by sympathising with them they may be led on to any extent of inquiry into the qualities and structures of these things? Every botanist who has had children with him in the woods and lanes must have noticed how eagerly they joined in his pursuits, how keenly they searched out plants for him, how intently they watched while he examined them, how they overwhelmed him with questions. The consistent follower of Bacon—the "servant and interpreter of nature," will see that we ought modestly to adopt the course of culture thus indicated. Having become familiar with the simpler properties of inorganic objects, the child should by the same process be led on to an exhaustive examination of the things it picks up in its daily walks—the less complex facts they present being alone noticed at first: in plants, the colours, numbers, and forms of the petals, and shapes of the stalks and leaves; in insects, the numbers of the wings, legs, and antennæ, and their colours. As these become fully appreciated and invariably observed, further facts may be successively introduced; in the one case, the numbers of stamens and pistils, the forms of the flowers, whether radial or bilateral in symmetry, the arrangement and character of the leaves, whether opposite or

alternate, stalked or sessile, smooth or hairy, serrated, toothed, or crenate; in the other, the divisions of the body, the segments of the abdomen, the markings of the wings, the number of joints in the legs, and the forms of the smaller organs—the system pursued throughout being that of making it the child's ambition to say respecting everything it finds all that can be said. Then when a fit age has been reached, the means of preserving these plants, which have become so interesting in virtue of the knowledge obtained of them, may as a great favour be supplied; and eventually, as a still greater favour, may also be supplied the apparatus needful for keeping the larvæ of our common butterflies and moths through their transformations—a practice which, as we can personally testify, yields the highest gratification; is continued with ardour for years; when joined with the formation of an entomological collection, adds immense interest to Saturday-afternoon rambles; and forms an admirable introduction to the study of physiology.

We are quite prepared to hear from many that all this is throwing away time and energy; and that children would be much better occupied in writing their copies or learning their pence-tables, and so fitting themselves for the business of life. We regret that such crude ideas of what constitutes education, and such a narrow conception of utility, should still be prevalent. Saying nothing on the need for a systematic culture of the perceptions and the value of the practices above inculcated as subserving that need, we are prepared to defend them even on the score of the knowledge gained. If men are to be mere cits, mere porters over ledgers, with no ideas beyond their trades—if it is well that they should be as the cockney whose conception of rural pleasures extends no further than sitting in a tea-garden smoking pipes and drinking porter; or as the squire who thinks of woods as places for shooting in, of uncultivated plants as nothing but weeds, and who classifies animals into game, vermin, and stock—then indeed it is needless to learn anything that does not directly help to replenish the till and fill the larder. But if there is a more worthy aim for us than to be drudges—if there are other uses in the things around than their power to bring money—if there are higher faculties to be exercised than acquisitive and sensual ones—if the pleasures which poetry and art and science and philosophy can bring are of any moment; then it is desirable that the instinctive inclination which every child shows to observe natural beauties and investigate natural phenomena, should be encouraged.

FRIEDRICH EDUARD BENEKE.



HERE is, perhaps, in the history of the modern revival of literature in Germany no fact more striking than this, that almost all the great writers who then appeared, devoted a large portion of their intellectual energy to the theory of education. Jean Paul and Herder wrote special treatises on education. Goethe's writings are full of remarks on the subject, and in his "Wilhelm Meister" he has given his ideal of what education should be. Kant lectured on the subject in the university, and has left behind him, as the result, his "Paedagogik." Fichte expressed his opinions strongly in his "Destination of Man," and other lectures delivered to his students. Hegel has supplied in his "Phänomenologie," ample materials for the construction of his theory. And Schleiermacher is well known even in this country for his treatises on education, especially on the higher education of universities.

The psychologists of Germany were not less ready to dedicate their powers to the investigation of the laws of education. Foremost among these stand out two, Herbart and Beneke, whose researches were of an eminently original character, and have left their stamp on the educational practices of Germany. Both of these great thinkers established schools, and in the case of both, but especially of Beneke, it is noteworthy that, while the philosophers of the day overlooked or despised their labours, the enlightened teachers of the time took up their theories and worked them out in their daily practice.

Beneke is comparatively unknown to the British public. His merits as a psychologist were expounded in Mr Lewes's "Biographical History of Philosophy," and some of his educational opinions were discussed by Professor Blackie in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*. But beyond these necessarily concise expositions, we do not know that anything has been done to make his system known. His works are voluminous, but none of them has been translated. In this article we intend to bring some of the prominent points of his system before our readers, but we do so with the caution that it is impossible to do justice to them in so short a space. Only he who studies the whole system as Beneke has laid it out in his "Lehrbuch der Psychologie als Naturwissenschaft,"* or expounded and defended it in his "Psychological Sketches" and his "New Psychology," can form

* Third edition, by Dressler. Berlin, 1861. 8vo.

an adequate idea of the rigorous exactness with which he has adhered to his principles, and the marvellous results which have crowned his labours.

Friedrich Eduard Beneke was born at Berlin on the 17th of February 1798, served as a volunteer in the War of Independence in 1815, studied theology at Halle in 1816, philosophy and theology at Berlin in 1817 under Schleiermacher, and in 1820 came out as privat-docent in the Berlin University. On the publication of his work, "Grundlegung zur Physik der Sitten," the Government forbade his lecturing, at the instance, it is asserted, of Hegel. In 1824 he appears as privat-docent in Göttingen; in 1827 he returned to Berlin in the same capacity. In 1832 he was appointed Professor Extraordinarius, and in 1841 he received a salary. In 1853 his health gave way, and on 1st March 1854 he disappeared, and his body was found a considerable time after.

During the period of his public teaching, he was continually busy with one publication after another, devoted to some department of his favourite study. A full list of his works is given by Dressler, at the end of the "Lehrbuch" previously mentioned.

The great aim of Beneke's life was to establish psychology on a scientific basis. He appeared at the time when the German world was beclouded by the dazzling uncertain speculations of such men as Fichte, and especially of Hegel, and his mind rebounding from such baseless speculations, longed to bring the phenomena of mind within the range of a positive science. He therefore resolved to adhere to the facts of observation, to propound no theory which was not based on close and long-continued observation, and to discard from his psychology those numerous problems, the solution of which man can only guess at, never attain.

Many in his day denied the possibility of making psychology a natural science. They thought that such a possibility implied a negation of the freedom of the will. His system was denounced as materialistic, as fatalistic, and as atheistic. The accusations have now been withdrawn. No one maintains more strongly than Beneke the difference between soul and body. He expressly disavows fatalism again and again. And not only are his own writings religious, but some of his followers have written on religious education, and in a spirit of devout reverence for Christ and

Christianity. In fact, we all recognise law in mind. If my eye turns to a certain object, and if the eye be sound, I shall see it. No one denies this. The result can be prophesied beforehand. The sequence is certain. Now all that psychology as a physical science does, is simply the ascertaining of such fixed antecedents and sequences in the phenomena of mind.

Beneke sets down two false notions as the principal obstacles to the scientific treatment of psychology. The first one is the practice of regarding the mind in its very earliest stage as an aggregate of special faculties. The child is supposed to have born with him faculties of memory, of understanding, of reasoning, of will, and such like. These faculties are assigned to the child in spite of the fact that no one has really observed the infant recollecting or reasoning or deliberately willing. In truth, these faculties do not exist in the child at its birth. There is a power called *soul*, but it does not admit of farther definition. It does not become known to us until it acts on the outer world, and it is only after long processes, which it is the business of psychology to observe, that it reaches the power of deliberate volition or of abstract reasoning.

But there is a second error which it is equally important to remove. All acts of retention are grouped together, and are assigned to a faculty called memory. All acts of reasoning are grouped together, and assigned to one faculty, called the reasoning faculty. And so on with other faculties. But this is a mistake. Psychologists like Sir William Hamilton and Mansel, allow that there are no such faculties, that the soul is one, and that these faculties are merely convenient names by which to group together similar phenomena. But the fiction leads to gross mistakes, both psychologically and educationally. If there were such a faculty as memory, then if a man's memory were good, he would remember everything well. But we find that the same man remembers words well, but forgets ideas, remembers numbers well, but forgets tunes, remembers places well, but forgets faces. So we find a critic of art reason soundly, and with wonderful acumen and insight, in the region of art, but he fails entirely in his reasoning in regard to religion or politics. How can this happen if he has but one reasoning faculty?

The business of psychology, then, is to observe the activities of the human mind, to watch and classify all its acts, avoiding all hasty generalisations.

Now, in the first stage of the soul's existence here, we know it only as it comes into contact with external nature. We are, therefore, first to

observe what takes place when the mind comes into contact with particular external objects. The results of this observation Beneke gave in what he called the four fundamental processes of the soul.

The first is, if the soul come into contact with an external object, it forms a sensation or sensuous perception. How it forms this sensation is not a question of psychology, for our consciousness does not speak even of the body as the means. We have to deal only with the facts of consciousness.

The second fundamental process is thus stated by Beneke: 'New original powers are continually forming themselves in the human soul.' The phenomenon which we perceive is this. The mind is employed for the day in perceptions. It at first works vigorously, but gradually its power fails, and, like the body, it refuses to act. Sleep, however, comes on, and next morning the mind awakens refreshed, reinvigorated, able to form new sensations and perceptions.

The third process is thus stated: 'All developments of our being are on the stretch every moment of our lives to equalise towards each other the moveable elements which are given in them.' The moveable elements require explanation. The result of the activities of the mind on external objects is different. In some cases the perceptions are steadfast. They are easily recalled. In other cases the perceptions are indistinct, the objects have not clearly impressed themselves on the mind. These become the moveable elements. They pass easily from one group of perceptions to another. Now, in the case of these moveable elements, the mind struggles to equalise them. For instance, good news comes to me. This feeling of gladness will give a colour to all my perceptions which are not definitely fixed. The song of the bird will be the expression of its happy existence; the sun will smile amidst clouds, all nature will rejoice. Again, if I receive a strong impression of an object, the strength of the impression will communicate itself to the impression of the next object which I perceive.

The last fundamental process which Beneke lays down is, 'The same products of the human soul, and those similar, in proportion to their likeness, attract each other, and strive to enter into nearer combinations with each other.'

These are the four great fundamental processes of the human mind. Beneke rests them entirely on observation, and if our reader has understood them thoroughly, he will see how simple they are. These processes take place in the three divisions of the soul's activity, which were proposed by

Kant, and since adopted by most psychologists; and Beneke applies his knowledge of them in explanation of the phenomena of the feelings and conations, as well as of those of our cognitions.

In the first fundamental act there are two factors,—the soul and the external object. If we turn our attention to the soul, we find that its capabilities in regard to external impressions may be described in a threefold manner. An object comes before the soul, and, in consequence, the soul takes a firm, strong impression from it. The object becomes firmly fixed in the soul. Or again, if an object comes before the soul, the soul seizes it in all its parts, it takes into its perception the minute features of the object. Or again, it may, in a speedy manner, lay hold of the object. At the earliest stage of the child's soul, it is impossible to define exactly what it is, because it is not until vast and complicated processes have been gone through, that the soul reaches the state in which we know it well. Therefore Beneke does not assign to the soul, in its earliest stages, any of the latent powers commonly ascribed to it. He deals with it in its earliest stages, simply as its activity in sensations and perceptions exhibits it, and he generalises the results in these three qualities,—strength, sensitiveness, and liveliness. This generalisation we consider of immense value to the educator. If he watches his slow pupils carefully, with these characteristics in his mind, he will often be able to lay his hand at once on the defect that prevents progress. If the boy does not receive a strong impression from an external object, he cannot remember it well; he cannot recollect it when he is required to do so. This quality of the mind is the most essential to thought, and characteristic of the manly intellect. If the mind, again, is not sufficiently sensitive, it will fail to form a minutely accurate notion of the object. This quality is characteristic of the female mind, and is not an unmixed good, if not combined with a sufficient amount of strength. If the mind does not take an impression in sufficient time, another object forces itself on the mind, a mere half-impression is produced, and the result is a weakening of the power of the mind. Or if the mind is too lively, and takes its impression too fast, there may be a deficiency of strength, and the pupil may be as ill off as the slowest in the class. Dunces, therefore, may be defective in the strength of their impressions, in the sensitiveness of their minds, in the too great slowness or fastness with which they receive impressions. These defects are defects of degree, and though it is in these qualities that one soul originally differs from another, yet much may be done by the teacher who

has studied the matter psychologically to increase the strength and regulate the liveliness of the pupil's impressions.

What adds, or rather creates, the deep importance of attention to these qualities, is another doctrine which Beneke has established in a completely scientific manner. This doctrine is, that the only possibility of the soul's progress to a higher stage, is the thorough accomplishment of the work in the previous stage. At the first stage the child is predominantly sensuous. Unless his senses be fully exercised, unless he accomplish his intuitions effectively, unless, in one word, he has made many clear, strong intuitions in the course of his childhood, the second portion of his life's intellectual work will be badly performed. In the second stage, the boy becomes reproductive; and here, again, unless the reproductions are done thoroughly, and repeated often enough, it is impossible to acquire anything like perfection in the third or highest stage, the productive. If we observe a child's progress in his intuitions, and his movement from these to reproduction, we shall see the reason of all this. A child looks at a tree for the first time. He looks only for an exceedingly short time. He has had some sensation in consequence, which must leave *some trace* in the mind, however indefinite it may be. After an interval he looks again at the tree, and there arises a similar sensation, which, by the fourth fundamental process, blends with the trace of the first. After these sensations have been multiplied to a great extent, by a law which Beneke works out scientifically, the child at length perceives an object which we call a tree. Having made this perception, however, he could not recall the tree in his mind if he wished. But he makes the perception or intuition again and again; and he must make it a certain number of times, more or less (the number being dependent on the strength, sensitiveness, and liveliness of the soul), before he can reproduce the tree without the presence of the object. Now, after he has acquired the power of reproducing one tree, he must learn to reproduce others; and he cannot form a notion of a tree, abstracted from all individual trees, until he has reproduced a considerable number of individual trees with tolerable exactness. He cannot become a thinker in any department, until he has gained the power of reproduction in that particular department. Hence also the scientific establishment of the law in education, that the teacher must resolutely, and with great patience, practise the pupil in the concrete, before he proceeds to the abstract. Education must be primarily inductive, if it is to be successful. The pupil must be

furnished in every study with numerous individual instances, before he can be fit to make the generalisations for himself; and to furnish him with generalisations before he knows the instances, or even at the same time, is not to educate him, but to throw obstacles in the way of his education.

If we turn now from the soul to the other factor, the external object, in the first fundamental process, we shall find that it is calculated to affect the soul in five different ways. The object may produce a satisfactory impression, and then we have a perception. I look at a tree in daylight, I see it, and am satisfied. Again, it may produce an impression, accompanied with distinctly felt pleasure. I look at a beautiful face. I see it, and, more than that, I feel exquisite pleasure at the sight of it. In proportion, however, to the pleasure of which I am conscious, is my perception less distinct, and if I turn immediately away from it, possibly I could describe it only in the most vague terms,—terms indicative more of my pleasure than of its exact form. But then there is this difference between the object that simply satisfies, and that which excites pleasure. I at once dismiss the object that satisfies the mind, and do not care whether it returns or not. But I long for the return of the object which gives me pleasure, and as it returns again and again, I come to know it more completely, even in its various features. But there are objects that at first stimulate the mind pleasurable, but being permitted to act too long on it, create satiety, or even disgust. In that case the mind has not received a satisfying perception of the object, but at the same time it has not only no desire to return to it, but positive aversion to it. The effect, consequently, is a weakening of the mind to this extent. Or again, the object is not calculated to produce a full impression. The light, for instance, is deficient. I look on an object at a distance in dim starlight. I see it indistinctly. The impression produced on my mind is unsatisfactory. I have gained no real knowledge. So far the mind is

weakened. Again, I gaze at the sun in its full blaze. The result is that I see nothing, but my eyes are dazzled, and I feel pain. There are thus five effects; a satisfactory intuition, an intuition accompanied with pleasure, an intuition accompanied with satiety, a defective intuition, and an intuition accompanied with pain. The first two strengthen the mind, the other three weaken it. The teacher must present his pupils only with the first two; the other three hinder his work. And, indeed, the division will apply to more things than intuitions. If the lesson given by a teacher produces either satiety or pain, or supplies the pupil only with half impressions, his work has been useless, and the boy would have been stronger in mind if the lesson had not been given. In every lesson the teacher must either satisfy the boy's mind, and then the knowledge will abide for some time, and become the basis of further knowledge; or he must stimulate the boy through pleasurable excitement, and then, though he may not remember so much of the instruction, there has been planted in his heart a craving for farther enlightenment, which may turn out to be more important than any particular knowledge communicated to him.

Our limits warn us to stop here, but we lay down the pen with the feeling how utterly inadequate our presentation of Beneke and his services to education has been. His works are suggestive in the highest degree to the teacher. He also published a separate work on Education and Instruction, which is the most complete and satisfactory book on the subject that we know. To those of our readers who wish to learn more of Beneke's system, and who have not much time to spare, we commend an admirable exposition of it by Dr Raue, procurable for a few shillings, "*Dr Beneke's Neue Seelenlehre nach methodischen Grundsätzen in einfach entwickelnder Weise für Lehrer bearbeitet von G. Raue, Dr. Med. Dritte, abermals verbesserte und vermehrte Auflage, besorgt von Seminardirector Dressler in Bautzen. Bautzen, 1854. 8vo.*"

Notices of Books.

Lectures on the Science of Language. Delivered by
MAX MÜLLER. Second Series. London. 1864.

As a summary of some of the most important discoveries which, within these last thirty years, have been made with regard to the origin and affinities

of the Indo-European languages, and the nature of language in general, these lectures will command the attention of all who take an interest in philological researches, without being at leisure to consult the more systematic works published by continental scholars. The standard writings of Bopp, Grimm,

Pott, Diez, Curtius, Heyse, Steinthal, and others enter too much into details to become the property of more than the few who devote a lifetime to philological studies. Professor Müller has successfully attempted in this volume and his preceding series of lectures to give a general outline of the science of language, starting from principles perfectly intelligible to educated readers, and leading them by an easy road to the apprehension of more difficult problems. We have not often found occasion to differ from the learned professor on general propositions, but in point of verbal etymology we regret to find him given to a certain laxity and vagueness which a more accurate knowledge of the four languages forming the groundwork of his inquiries (p. 42) would have taught him to avoid. Every language has its own growth and its peculiar laws; and these must be well understood before we attempt to compare them with other tongues, however intimately connected in point of affinity. We find the author prone to judge of Greek, Latin, and Teutonic by the standard of the Sanscrit, and to trace not only specialities of this language, but also conceptions peculiar to the Hindu mind in literatures of an independent development. But the task of a sound linguist is not more to recognise unity in an apparent diversity, than to discern variety in productions originally sprung from the same source, but diversified by the accidents of time, climate, and temperament.

In illustration, we append a few remarks on points where Professor Müller has failed to convince us, reserving for one of the next numbers a fuller discussion of matters in which we have arrived at totally different conclusions.

To begin with the English present participle in *ing* (Lectures, pp. 15-18). That in modern English the suffix *ing* is employed in three senses is clear. "He is clothing the poor," "his liberality in clothing the poor was universally known," "the poor want clothing," differs as much as in Latin *ungens, unctio, unguen'tum*. But have these three applications of *ing*, as Professor Müller tells us, sprung alike from the suffix *ung* or *ing*, which in Anglo-Saxon forms abstract nouns? Supposing this statement to be correct, we should be puzzled how to explain the accusative dependent on the participle in terms like "he is loving his neighbour." No accusatives are ever combined with abstracts either in Saxon or any other Teutonic dialect, and for this reason the theory that the phrase "I am going," is a corruption of the vulgar "I am a-going," i. e. "I am on going," falls to the ground. We know of no other instance where a preposition can be arbitrarily dropped before a case dependent on it, least of all should we be inclined to consider it possible in languages deprived of the power of their original inflexions. On the other hand, constructions of *to be* with the present participle are common not only in Saxon, but also

the other ancient cognate dialects.* This warrants a different explanation from that grounded on the provincial *a going*. The English present participle in *ing*, in old English *inge, ynge*, is a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon termination *eade*, a consonantal change met with in some still living German dialects, for instance, in that of Henneberg.

Incidentally, the author mentions another *ing*, forming in Anglo-Saxon substantives expressing descent. These are always (not chiefly) derived from other nouns, as *aetheling*, a nobleman (in German *Adelung*), from *aethle*, noble; *niðing*, a wicked doer, from *nið*, wickedness. Now what is *king*, Anglo-Saxon *cyning*? Professor Müller, on p. 225, tells us "that it corresponds to the Sanscrit *janaka*. It simply meant father, the father of a family." We know that oriental despots call themselves fathers of their people, and that the Emperor Nicholas was greeted with the same endearing term. We are further aware that the Sanscrit *janaka* is a regular derivative from the root *jan* by the suffix *aka*, and means a producer, then a father. But it requires only a slight insight into Anglo-Saxon grammar to learn that *cyning* is a man descended from a noble *kin* or family (Anglo-Saxon *cyn*), a nobleman, and thus it coincides essentially with the Greek *γενναός*, from *γεννα*, or the Sanscrit *kulina* noble, from *kula*, a family.

Not less startling than the metamorphosis of *janaka* into *king* is that of *elder* into *earl*, asserted on the same page. "*Earl*, the same as the Danish *Jarl*, was, I believe, originally a contraction of *elder*: *earl*, therefore, and *alder*, in *alderman*, were once the same word." We are not told by what extraordinary process this contraction is effected. The Anglo-Saxon *eorl*, in old Saxon *erl* (*man* in general, in Icelandic *jarl*, in old High German *erl*, presupposes a Gothic *airl-s* (i. e. *airl-s*), and this is derived from a root *ēr* like Anglo-Saxon *setel* a seat, Gothic *sitt-s*, German *sessel*, from *sitan*, to sit. Compare in Latin *sella* for *sedla*, Greek *ἵδρα*. Most probably *earl* descends from the same root as *ἀγῆς* in *ἀγῆναι*, *ἀγῆων*, *ἀγῆτος* (from which we have *ἀγῆτης* chiefs), *ἀγῆτή*, and the Sanscrit *ārya* a man belonging to the privileged castes, *ud-āra*, noble, generous. Nor is the Professor more successful in turning *alderman* into *older men*. In Anglo-Saxon, *older* or *elder* is *eldra*, while *ealdor*, derived from the same root as *older*, but by a distinct suffix, expresses by itself a chief, a principal. The Anglo-Saxon *ealdorman* is nothing more or less than a principal man, just as *ealdor-dēma* means a chief justice.

The German term for *earl* is *Graf*. Professor Müller propounds, on the same page, the following etymology. "The elders were also called the grey-headed, or the *Greys*, and hence the German *Graf*."

* Psalm cxli. 1, *ic eam biddende boalde drihten*, I am praying to the mighty Lord; Daniel, 584, *and thin rice restende bið*, thy empire will be lasting, &c.

gravis, originally *der Grave*." But *grey* sounds in ancient German *grāw*, in Icelandic *grá*, in Frisic *grawe*, in Anglo-Saxon *græg*, words intimately connected with the Latin *rāvus* which has lost an initial guttural. This adjective raised into an appellative signifies a greyhound, a badger, a sort of fur, but nowhere any kind of state-officer. *Graf*, on the contrary, sounds in Old German *grāfo*, *grāfo*, in Icelandic *greifi*, in Frisic *greafa*, lastly in Anglo-Saxon *gerēfa*. This *gerēfa* is preserved to the present day in *sheriff*, a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon *sciregerēfa* the governor of a shire. Until it be proved that a Teutonic *is* can ever pass into an *f*, we must hesitate to accept the ingenious identification of *grey* with *Graf*.

The author has collected in his twelfth lecture many amusing instances of etymological misunderstandings, arising from the popular instinct of giving a plausible interpretation to foreign or antiquated terms, or words cast adrift from the stream of living languages. A great number of examples, both ancient and modern, might be added, but a few will suffice. The Latin *margarita*, borrowed from *μαργαρίτης*, has been turned in Old High German into *marigraze*, Middle High German *mergriez*, Old Saxon *merigrita*, Anglo-Saxon *meregreat*, the grit of the sea. The German *Huefihorn*, a hunter's bugle, seems to be a horn carried on the hip, but the correct spelling *Hiefhorn*, *Hiefhorn* shews at once that it means a blowing horn. A third instance is furnished by an etymology we read on p. 286 of these Lectures. We learn from Professor Müller that "the modern German word for idol, *Goetze*, is but a modified form of *God*, and the compound *Oelgoetze*, which is used in the same sense, seems actually to point back to ancient stone idols, before which, in the days of old, lamps were lighted and incense burnt." Luther, in translating the passage of Deuteronomy, "And ye shall hew down the graven images of their gods," uses the expression '*die Goetzen ihrer Goetter*.'" Nothing seems more natural than that the term for a false god should be formed from *God* by a sort of a deteriorating suffix, after the manner of the Italian *womo*, *omaccio* a bad man, *casa*, *casaccia* a miserable house, &c. At the same time nothing can be proved more satisfactory than that *Goetze* stands in no connection with *God*. The German *giessen* means not only to pour out, but also to cast metals,* and *Bildgiesser* is an artist who casts images. From this verb we find in Middle High German the derivative *gōz*, meaning a shower of rain, but also a cast image. It is this masculine *gōz* which in modern German is represented by *Goetze*. What the Professor adds about *Oelgoetze* shews that mythological fiction is at work up to the present hour.

* Luther translates Deuteronomy xxvii. 15 by "Verflucht sey, wer einen Goetzen oder gegossen Bild (molten image) macht."

An English-Greek Lexicon. Abridged from the larger Work. By C. D. YONGE, author of "A Latin Grachus," "A Latin Dictionary," "Virgil, with English notes," &c. London: Longman, Green Longman, Roberts, and Green. 1864.

Mr Yonge says in his preface, "The present volume differs from the larger work, of which it is an abridgment, in the circumstance that, while that aims at giving every Greek word which is found in the authors of the classical age, this, being meant for less advanced scholars, confines itself solely to those used by the Attic writers." Mr Yonge includes the poetic as well as the prose writers in his work, marking with an obelisk what is found only in the former.

Mr Yonge's plan is attended with some disadvantages, which will mar to a slight extent the usefulness of his work. The range of Attic ideas, and especially objects, was different from, and in some respects more contracted than, the modern. What is the pupil to do, then, when he has an exercise prescribed to him on some modern subject, or a piece of English to translate into Greek which contains the names of modern objects? Thus, Mr Yonge's dictionary gives us the Greek for a *funnel*, but omits altogether a *steamboat*. Again, he supplies us with the word for *Parliament*, but no word for the *House of Lords* or the *House of Commons*. Again, if a boy had such a sentence as this to translate into Greek, "The lady wore a gray dress, trimmed with blue and green ribbons," if he were to consult this dictionary, he would find *γλαυκός* for gray, *γλαυκός* for blue, and *γλαυκός* for green; and his Greek sentence would therefore leave a reader in great doubt as to the colour of the lady's dress and her taste in trimmings.

These, however, are very slight defects. The work deserves the highest commendation for its great accuracy, its fulness within the prescribed range, and the seasonable help which it gives to the young student in learning to write Greek. We can confidently recommend it as the best school English-Greek Lexicon we know.

A Grammar of the Latin Language. By ARCHIBALD H. BRYCE, LL.D., Trin. Coll., Dublin; one of the Classical Masters in the High School of Edinburgh. London, Edinburgh, and New York: T. Nelson and Sons.

The two essential features which should characterise a Latin Grammar, are accuracy of scholarship and adaptability to the powers of the learner. Dr Bryce is well known both as an accomplished scholar and an experienced teacher; and his Grammar consequently combines both the excellencies on which we lay special stress.

Dr Bryce has used in his compilation all the best

Latin Grammars, German and English, and he has moreover often given the results of original investigation, and of the more recent German philological inquiries which have not yet become generally known. He shews, however, a great deal of wisdom in mediating between the new and old theories, neither rashly altering nor rashly refusing to alter. Indeed, the striking superiority of this Grammar to others lies in its practical nature. Dr Bryce has brought the results of considerable experience to bear on the form of his book. The three main features, he says himself, which he has endeavoured to impart to it, are "simplicity and accuracy of statement, clearness of arrangement, and adequateness of detail." We think he has been remarkably successful, and especially in clearness of arrangement, favoured greatly by the clearness of the printing, the Grammar is a model. Every important part of Latin inflexion is presented in such bold type and in such a systematic manner, that the pupil's eye is sure to be struck by the similarities, discrepancies, and analogies which it is wished to impress on his mind. Dr Bryce has also placed a much greater number of forms fully before the eye than is usual. Thus, in the third declension, he has given full specimens of the declensions of almost all possible forms of words. In fact, he has rendered it almost impossible for the pupil to make a mistake in the declension of a word, if he be supplied with but a moderate memory for words and forms.

In the syntax, Dr Bryce has embodied the divisions of clauses and sentences which are now usual in English Grammars, that give the analysis of sentences. In some of his definitions Dr Bryce is indeed peculiar, but his meaning is always clear, and can be apprehended at once by a boy of average ability.

In case, however, some teachers might feel inclined to use Ruddiman's Rules, they are printed in bold type.

Dr Bryce has also given an ample summary of the principal facts of prosody, and he has added in appendices rules for the gender of nouns, a list of irregular verbs, and an explanation of the various Latin abbreviations.

We do not know a Grammar of the same size which combines so much of advanced scholarship with so much clearness of division and explanation.

The type, as we have already said, is remarkably distinct, and we have no hesitation in saying, that, taking the quality of the matter, the neatness of the printing, and the size of the book into consideration, it is the cheapest Latin Grammar that has ever appeared.

We trust, however, that Dr Bryce will be prevailed on to publish a still cheaper. The Grammar, as it is at present, if it contained a chapter on the formation of words, would be as complete as is required in most classical schools. A good deal of the matter

printed in small type might be omitted, and we should then have a Grammar of small size adapted to the earliest stages of the learning of Latin.

Philodemi Epicurei De Ira Liber. E Papyro Herculanensi ad fidem Exemplorum Ozontensis et Neapolitani nunc primum Edidit THEODORUS GOMPERZ. Lipsiæ, in ædibus, B. G. TEUBNERI. 1864.

It is astonishing how worthless the manuscripts found in Herculaneum have turned out to be. For the most part they are the dry speculations of Epicurean philosophers, probably because the villa in which the rolls were found was the residence of an Epicurean philosopher, perhaps of Philodemus and his heirs, as Gomperz guesses.

The present work, now given to the public by Gomperz, is inferior in interest to the fragments of Epicurus, which were edited by Orelli, or to those of Phædrus, edited by Petersen, from which Cicero borrowed largely in his first book on the nature of the gods. It will, however, be welcomed by scholars for several reasons. The fasciculi, published in Naples, and containing exact fac-similes of rolls, are difficult to procure, and contain no sort of comment on the text. Gomperz has reproduced the fac-similes, principally from the Oxford copy, he has added the variations in the Neapolitan copy, and he has tried to restore the text. The restored text is printed in that new Greek type which threatens to become common. This new type was adopted by Lachmann, in the occasional Greek quotations which he made in his commentary on Lucretius. It has been used by Buttmann in an edition of the New Testament; by Wachsmuth, in an edition of Lydus de Ostentis; and in one or two other recently edited Greek books. Gomperz announces in his preface, that he intends to publish a commentary on the text which he has tried to restore.

An English Grammar specially intended for Classical Schools and Private Students. By EDWARD HIGGINSON, author of a Prize Essay in "The Educator," 1839, &c. London: Longman, Green, Longman, Roberts, and Green. 1864.

We can very confidently recommend this grammar to the notice of teachers. Mr Higginson gives the following account of its production. "In the course of thirty years of active work, I have bought and examined every likely-seeming English grammar (and many other likely-seeming school-books besides), and have several times changed my class-book for what seemed a better. In all the grammars I have found much that my pupils did not want, and a good deal that seemed to me of questionable soundness; and I have always had occasion to supply orally a great deal that was not in the books. In the present grammar, I endeavour to leave out what I have left out in teaching, and to include what I have supplied in teaching."

The grammar, as might have been expected, contains a great deal of matter which it would be well for every teacher of grammar to have beside him. We doubt, however, whether it is the best book to use with a class. And our reason for this doubt is, that Mr Higginson seems to us to have ignored one very important purpose for which grammar is taught. He defines grammar thus: "Grammar teaches the right use of language." But this is not its only use, nor perhaps its most important use as a study. Its special function is by introducing the pupil to the phenomena of connected speech, to prepare him for the higher abstract studies, especially logic and metaphysics. To accomplish this purpose, the definitions of the parts of speech must be accurate and philosophical, and indeed throughout the whole of a grammar there should be great preciseness. Mr Higginson's grammar fails in this respect. It is far behind such grammars as Mr Morell's or Professor Bain's in exactness of definition and subdivision. It is, however, first-rate as an introduction to the use of the English language. All the facts which a pupil should learn, are brought forward in a clear and interesting manner; the English is continually compared with Latin, French, and German, where these languages can throw light on it; and there are wise directions given in the "Hints on English Composition." Some admirable remarks on the present state of the English language are given in an Appendix.

I. *Arithmetic for Younger Scholars.* II. *Arithmetic and Mensuration for Elder Scholars.* III. *A Complete Course of Oral and Mental Arithmetic.* By WILLIAM EASTON, Master of Scudamore's Endowed School, Hereford. London: Groombridge & Son.

Nos. I. and II. have many points of recommendation. They are neatly "got up," cheap, and compre-

hensive; the author, wisely leaving *principles* to be expounded by the teacher, has contented himself with giving the rules of working, and a sufficiently numerous and varied set of examples. These, while requiring average ingenuity and power for their solution, possess the further recommendation of being couched in language easily intelligible to young children.

A peculiarity of No. II., and an important one, is the introduction of mensuration. This part of the book, like what precedes it, is thoroughly practical; and to boys who do not remain long enough at school to obtain a knowledge of pure mathematics will be found much more useful and engaging than the study of the cube root, recurring decimals, &c., whose acquaintanceship most boys both make and break at school. The only thing open to serious objection is the connection, which the author has taken the trouble to make, between the questions under the four simple and compound rules. These are so arranged that the answer, say to No. 6 in addition, stands also for No. 6 in subtraction, and, with a very simple and apparent modification, for the same numbers in multiplication and division. Boys are sharp enough to notice this; and he would have little of boy nature who would plod his way through a question where he had to multiply by three or four figures, to secure a result which the corresponding number in subtraction yields almost at a glance.

The book on oral and mental arithmetic will be found very useful if used as a sort of directory; and it is only to such use that books on mental arithmetic ought to be put. This subject, above every other, requires activity on the part of the teacher—an activity which he can only acquire by making his own question; and, as children are much stimulated by example, he will find it of no little advantage to solve for himself as well as propose.

[Notices of several books are postponed to next month for want of space.]

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

SIR,—Allow me to point out what appears to me to be an error in the analysis given by "Essay" of the sentence proposed in the July number, viz., "The crime of which he has been found guilty is one which I never believed that he could have committed."

"Essay" states that the clause *I never believed* is a simple sentence used parenthetically, not observing that it cannot be at one and the same time

parenthetical and principal to the subordinate clause *that he could have committed which*. For, surely, a clause to be parenthetical must have no grammatical relation with any other part of the sentence; must, in fact, occupy the same place in the analysis as the interjection in parsing.

Again, the clause "that he could have committed which" is stated to be (1) a subordinate noun-clause to "I never believed," and (2) an adjectival clause

to "the crime is one." The first of these it undoubtedly is, the second it certainly is not. For although it is not impossible that the same sentence might be both a noun-clause and an adjective-clause, in the present case the conjunction "that" forbids us to regard it in any other light than as a noun-clause. "He could have committed which" is indeed a proper adjective clause, but not "that he could have committed which." Was "Essay" misled for a moment by the word *that*, as if it were the relative?

The true explanation, as I imagine, is this: the somewhat peculiar structure of the whole sentence compels us to take the complex clause "which I never believed that he could have committed," as an adjectival clause to the word *one*, as under:—

A. The crime | is one.

Principal clause.

a. Which I never believed that he could have committed.

Subord. adj. clause to "one."

Subj. I

Pred. Believed

Obj. That he could have committed which

Extens. Never.

a². (That) he could have committed which.

Subord. noun-clause obj. to a.

Subj. He

Pred. could have committed

Obj. which.

If the above explanation is not the true one, I shall be happy to stand corrected.—I am, &c.

C. L. F.

QUERIES.

24. In *Richard II.* (Act III. Scene 3), Bolingbroke says to the king—

"Me rather had, my heart might feel your love,
Than my unpleas'd eye see your courtesy."

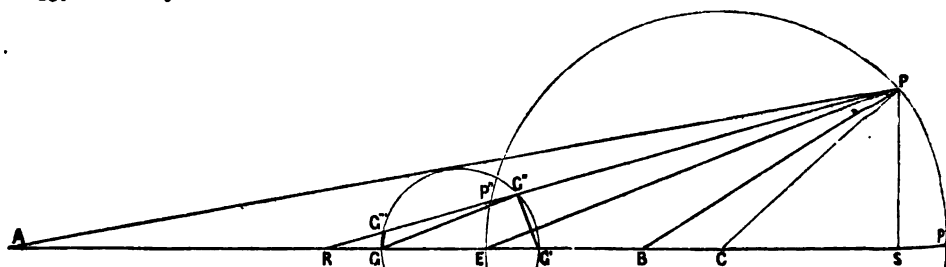
This seems to me a palpable instance of bad grammar, the accusative being put for the nominative. I shall be glad, however, to hear the opinion of your correspondents upon the passage, and to learn whether there is a different reading in any edition. In your July Number *Sigma* states that Shakespeare frequently sets grammar at defiance in order to express "a deeper meaning than grammatical correctness could give." I do not think this remark applies to the present case, and yet the mistake seems too glaring to be a mere oversight.

BETA.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

15. Solution by Parade.—



Let the base $AB = b$; $AR = \frac{1}{2}b$; $ES = x$; $P'S = y$; and $m : n :: k : 1$.

Make $\Delta E : EB :: k : 1$, $\therefore EB = \frac{b}{k+1}$ and $\Delta E = \frac{kb}{k+1}$

Make $AP : PB :: k : 1$, $\therefore EB = \frac{b}{k+1}$ and $EP = \frac{b}{k+1} + \frac{b}{k+1} = \frac{2kb}{k^2-1}$

$\therefore AP' = \left\{ \left(\frac{kb}{k+1} + x \right)^2 + y^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $BP' = \left\{ \left(x - \frac{b}{k+1} \right)^2 + y^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

and since $AP' : P'B :: m : n :: k : 1 \therefore AP' = k.BP'$

$\therefore k \left\{ \left(x - \frac{b}{k+1} \right)^2 + y^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left\{ \left(\frac{kb}{k+1} + x \right)^2 + y^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$\therefore x^2 - \frac{2bk}{k^2-1}x + y^2 = 0$ — the equation to a circle whose circumference is the locus of P' .

Since RG, RG', RG'', RG''' are respectively thirds of RE, RP, RP', RP'' the locus of the centre of

gravity is a circle whose diameter $GG' = \frac{1}{3}EP = \frac{2kb}{8(k^2-1)}$, and $\therefore \text{area} = \frac{k^2b^2\pi}{9(k^2-1)^2} = \frac{b^2m^2\pi}{9(m^2-n^2)^2}$

QUERIES.

17. *Solution requested by Inquirer.*—Sir John F. W. Herschel, in an article in *Good Words*, comparing the action of the sun on the planets to that of the hand of a slinger on the stone he whirls round, says, "If a mechanist were told the weight of the stone (say a pound), the length of the string

(say a yard), and the number of turns made by the stone in a certain time (say sixty in a minute), he would be able to tell precisely what ought to be the strength of the string so as *just not to break*. In the case I have mentioned, it ought to be capable of sustaining 8 lbs. 10 oz. 886 grs." How does he obtain this result?

Education at Home.

I. EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

DURING the parliamentary recess it may be useful to some of our readers to possess a *resumé* of the educational and allied work performed by our legislators during the last session. These Bills, Reports, and Papers may be obtained at a moderate cost of the parliamentary printers, Great Queen Street, London; Messrs Black, Edinburgh; and Messrs Thom, Dublin.

1. Clerical Subscription, copy of the Commission on.
2. Examination of Candidates for Civil Service, Regulations for.
3. Charitable Funds, Return by Official Trustees.
4. Education (East India), Dispatch relating to.
5. Education Estimates. Education, Science and Art. Civil Service Estimates.
6. Standard Weights and measures, Papers relating to.
7. British Museum, Correspondence relative to.
8. Registration of Works of Literature.
9. Education. Number of Candidates at Training Colleges.
- 10, 11. National Education (Ireland), Papers relating to.
12. Training and Model Schools (Ireland), Returns relating to.
13. Convent Schools (Ireland), Papers relative to.
- 14, 15. Queen's College (Cork), Depositions in the case of the burning of.
16. Education. Return of Endowed Schools receiving Grants.
17. Education (Mr Morell), Correspondence relating to Dismissal of.
18. National Portrait Gallery, Seventh Report.
19. British Museum, Accounts relating to.
- 20, 21. Decimal System of Measures, Letters relating to.
22. Weights, Measures, and Coins. Report of International Statistical Congress.
23. New National Gallery (Burlington House), Supplementary Estimate.
24. St Ive (Liskeard) School, Correspondence.
25. National Education (Ireland), Resolutions relative to Recent Changes.

26. Oxford University. Statute made on 30th April 1863.

27. Education. Supplementary Rules, Revised Code
28. Museum of Industry (Dublin).
29. Royal Hibernian Military School, Returns.
30. National Gallery, Correspondence.
31. Education (Ireland). Report.
32. Schools of Art, Report.
33. Education. Inspectors' Report. Bills.
34. Tests Abolition (Oxford) Bill.
35. Metric System of Weights and Measures. Permissive Bill.
36. Factory Acts Extension Bill.
37. Facilities for Divine Service in Collegiate Schools Bill. Papers presented by command.
38. Education. Revised Code of Regulations.
39. Queen's College, Cork, Report.
40. Public Schools and Colleges. Report of Commissioners, Appendix, Evidence. Vols. I.-V.
41. Endowments for Education. Minute of Committee of Privy Council.
42. Civil Service Examinations, Ninth Report of Commissioners.
43. Charity Commission, Report.
44. Queen's College, Galway, Report.
45. Science and Art Department. Report and Appendix.
46. National School Society. Correspondence on Effect of Terms of Union upon Application for Grants.
47. Reformatory Schools, Seventh Report.
48. Queen's College, Belfast, Report.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

EDINBURGH.—The curators of this university met on the 5th ult., to elect a successor to the late Professor Miller in the chair of surgery. The curators are seven in number, four of whom are elected by the Town Council, and three by the University Court. Five members were present, James Spence, Esq., F.R.C.S.E., and Professor Lister of Glasgow, were proposed. On a division *four* voted for Mr Spence, and *one* for Professor Lister. After a discussion, it was agreed to receive *absentee* votes, when it was

found that the Chancellor of the Exchequer, rector of the university, and Sir David Brewster, principal, were both in favour of Professor Lister. This, however, did not affect the former vote, and Mr Spence was declared duly elected.

UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—An influential meeting was held at Greenock on the 29th ult., for the purpose of forming a local committee to co-operate with the central committee in Edinburgh, in establishing local examinations similar to those in England. Mr Dalgleish, secretary of the Edinburgh Examining Board, was present, to explain the objects of that body. The leading object of the Board, he said, was to improve the education of young men who pass directly from school to business. The examination will consist of two parts: 1st, common subjects, embracing a comprehensive rudimentary training; and 2d, special subjects, including the higher branches of learning. The meeting highly approved of the scheme, as described by Mr Dalgleish, and a committee was appointed to make application to the Board at Edinburgh, that Greenock be added to the list of local centres.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—EVENING CLASSES.—These popular and useful classes recommence on the evening of October 10th, embracing a complete university course in divinity, science, and art, and giving unexampled means to the young men of London, at a cheap rate, for mental discipline and self-improvement. The staff of college professors engage *con amore* in these classes, aided by all the college appliances.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY.—Professor Veitch of St Andrews has been elected to the Professorship of Logic and Rhetoric in the Glasgow University, by a majority of one. Mr Bannatyne, Mr Walter Buchanan, and Sir Archibald Campbell, voted for Mr Veitch. Principal Barclay and Mr Buchanan, the retiring Professor, voted for Mr Nichol, at present Professor of English Literature in Glasgow University. The other members of the University Court were not present.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—The first formal entrance examination at Rugby, in accordance with the recommendation of the Public School Commissioners, was held in the Town Hall during the last week in August. Upwards of sixty boys were admitted. The first boy under the new arrangement was from Grange Court, Chigwell.

THE NEW ROYAL SCHOOL OF NAVAL ARCHITECTURE, under the control of the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education, in conjunction with the Admiralty, will be opened in South Kensington, in November next. The school is for the instruction

not only of Admiralty pupils from the Royal Dockyards and officers of the Royal Navy, but also for the use of naval architects and shipbuilders in wood and iron, marine engineers, foremen of works, shipwrights, and the public generally. The Rev. J. Woolley, LL.D., of St John's College, Cambridge, principal of the school of naval architecture at Portsmouth, has been appointed, with the concurrence of the Admiralty, inspector-general and director of studies, and C. W. Merrifield, F.R.S., principal of the school. The annual examinations for teachers' certificates in science, will be held throughout the month of November. Under the new arrangements no teacher can claim payments except for subjects in which he holds a certificate, but in these subjects he may earn now any amount he is capable of. A revised edition of the Directory is ready for publication.

EDINBURGH HIGH SCHOOL.—At a meeting of the Edinburgh Town Council, held on the 6th proximo, it was agreed to make several important changes in the High School, by a majority of 23 to 7. The changes proceeded, to a considerable extent, on suggestions given in by the rector and masters, from time to time, during the past and present years. The leading alterations are the following: The classical masters are to have their salaries raised from £35 to £52, 10s.—this addition to cover all claim on the part of the master of the junior class for assisting the rector in teaching the Greek class. It was agreed that the rector, instead of a salary of £200, the fees of his class, and a shilling of capitation money from each pupil, should have £350 of salary, half the fees, and the capitation allowance as before. The fees of the classical masters are to be increased from £1, 1s. to £1, 6s. per quarter, being an addition of twenty-five per cent. The rector and classical masters are in future to be relieved of the collecting of their class-fees, as the chamberlain's clerk is to attend for that purpose for a few days at the beginning of each quarter. After a fixed period, all fees are to be paid at the Council Chambers. The other masters wish to continue the collection of their own fees as hitherto. It was also agreed to superannuate the janitor, and provide a better supply of apparatus,—maps, globes, diagrams, &c.,—for each class. It was settled some time ago that the rector should have charge of the discipline of the school. The following suggestions of the rector and classical masters in regard to the teaching in the school were sanctioned by the Town Council, viz.—1. The teaching of Latin to be restricted to a definite period of two hours daily; 2. Definite periods to be set apart for religious instruction and the teaching of history and geography; 3. A system of examination of the pupils at entrance and at the close of each year, with the view of placing them in the best position, according to their previous acquirements. The rector's recommendation, that the instruction in the English

language and literature should be entrusted to one English teacher, instead of being in the hands of the four classical masters as at present, was rejected, as was also the recommendation by the classical masters, that one hour a week should be devoted to science, and that for this purpose a teacher qualified to instruct the pupils in natural science, and natural philosophy and chemistry, should be appointed.

SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT, SOUTH KENSINGTON
—LIST OF GOLD MEDALLISTS—SCIENCE EXAMINATION,

1864.—The Queen's medals which are offered for competition throughout the United Kingdom, at the general examination of Science Schools and Classes, held each year in May, consist of one gold medal for each "group" of subjects, and one silver, and one bronze for each subject. Anybody may compete, but the medals cannot be taken by middle-class students who are more than 17 years of age, or by persons who are not students of Science Classes. Such persons receive an honorary certificate instead. Their names appear in italics in the following list:—

	Name.	Age.	Occupation.	Residence.	Group.
	Baker, John B.	18	Railway Clerk.	Chester.	{ Geometry, Drawing, Building Construction.
	Richards, Edwd.	19	Shipwright.	Poplar.	{ Theoretical and Applied Mechanics.
Equal.	{ Judd, Jno. W.	24	Student.	Brixton.	{ Acoustics, Light and Heat, Magnetism, and Electricity.
	{ Auderton, Jno. G.	20	Optician.	Birmingham.	{ Do. Do.
Equal.	{ Allen, Alfred H.	18	Analytical Chemist.	Sheffield.	{ Inorganic and Organic Chemistry.
	{ Barr, William	19	Chemist.	Glasgow.	{ Do. Do.
Equal.	{ Judd, Jno. W.	24	Student.	Brixton.	{ Geology and Mineralogy.
	{ Conolly, John	22	Currier.	Cork.	{ Do. Do.
	Angel, Henry	20	Assistant Teacher.	Islington.	{ Physiology and Zoology.
Equal.	{ Judd, John	24	Student.	Brixton.	{ Economic and Systematic Botany.
	{ Moffet, Isabella	22		Belfast.	{ Do. Do.
	Snelus, Geo. F.	26	Teacher.	Macclesfield.	{ Navigation.

Besides the gold medals, 27 silver and 41 bronze medals were awarded.

The subjoined table displays the variety of tastes amongst the students of science throughout the United Kingdom:—

	Candidates.	Passed.	Hon. Mention.	Prizes.			Failed.
				3d Class.	2d Class.	1st Class.	
GROUP I.							
Geometrical Drawing.	552	118	147	88	45	38	116
Mechanical and Machine Drawing.							
Building, Construction.							
GROUP II.							
Mechanics, Theoretical and Applied.	69	16	16	9	4	8	16
GROUP III.							
Natural Philosophy,	522	118	108	100	52	26	123
GROUP IV.							
Chemistry,	993	149	203	224	182	116	119
GROUP V.							
Geology and Mineralogy. . .	192	40	41	39	22	18	32
GROUP VI.							
Animal Physiology and Zoology.	653	153	128	101	42	48	181
GROUP VII.							
Botany	191	24	55	47	30	17	18
GROUP VIII.							
Mining and Metallurgy . . .	92	17	30	12	9	6	18
Navigation	380	124	94	18	10	7	128
Totals,	3644	759	817	638	396	284	750

PRIVY COUNCIL ARRANGEMENTS.—In many of the inspected schools in Scotland the beginning of the school year, i. e. the period at which the inspector's visit is due, has been altered, so as to suit new arrangements in the inspectors' districts.

SCHOOL FEES.—A movement is being made in various localities to have the fees, both in elementary and higher class schools, increased. The decision of the Edinburgh Town Council, referred to in another column, will no doubt impart to it a powerful impetus. An instance of what can be done by prudence and co-operation has been afforded at Aberdeen, where a simultaneous raising of fees in the elementary schools has been effected with complete success.

THE MEDICAL PROFESSION AND THE GOVERNMENT.—The firm attitude taken by the medical men is already beginning to tell on the Government, for already two of the causes of complaint have been removed. The medical officer is not now to be asked to perform the ignominious operation of branding deserters, and he is to be saluted as an officer, though not in uniform, when in the discharge of his duties.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION.—The *Constitutionnel* publishes a report, addressed to the Secretary of the European Association for promoting the study of modern languages on an extensive scale, by Professor Brandt, principal of the establishment founded at St Germain for carrying out the system approved of by the committee. The object in view is thus defined in the report:—"To have the same curriculum of studies applied simultaneously in several countries and several languages, and successively followed in such countries and languages as families might prefer, so that the pupils, in changing from one country and idiom to another, might not be embarrassed by any great diversity in the mode of teaching." The great obstacle to the acquirement of several modern languages is the great loss of time which attends the residence of the pupil in the different countries to which he is sent. Usually six months are taken up in learning so much of the new language as will enable the pupil to follow the general routine of studies. By the international plan, a boy going from England to Germany to remain, say a year and a half, having been duly prepared for some months before, will, on the day after his arrival, take up his studies at the very point at which he had left them in the preceding country. In the absence of the complete system, the establishment at St Germain approximates in a certain measure to what the association is most anxious to see in practice on a grand scale:—"The object we have in view," says the Professor's report, "is twofold: first, to afford the means of acquiring a complete practical knowledge of living languages; secondly, to combine the study of them with sound classical studies, and with the preparations for the examinations, which, in the

four principal countries of Europe, give admission to the different professions. Let us observe in the first place that the study of living languages is wonderfully promoted by the constant intercourse of pupils of different nations living together. Two hours are every day devoted to the exercises considered necessary; I must explain that the word *exercices* is not here employed merely to signify the study of the principles of grammar, or of the rules of syntax, but the combining of instruction in modern languages with the usual objects of study. For instance, the pupils, as soon as they have made sufficient progress in the language chosen by them, are called to follow a course of lectures (literary or scientific) professed in that language. It is unnecessary to dwell on the advantages of such a combination. . . . Among the boarders we have had ten young Englishmen belonging to the highest ranks of society. One of them, the son of a peer, came to us on leaving Eton, and was prepared for one of the most difficult examinations in the English system of education—that required for admission to the Foreign Office. He passed No. 1 on the list. Another also obtained a high rank in the list of admissions to the Royal Military School." As, after all, the establishment spoken of can only be considered as a school of a superior character, the report shews how it responds to the views of the Association:—"It is international, in the comparatively restricted sense that, having pupils belonging to different nations, it gives them instruction in living languages sufficiently profound to become practically serviceable, without any absolute necessity for travelling in foreign countries. It is scarcely necessary to add that this constitutes only the first part of the vast system developed in the report. But the whole course of studies is organised in such a manner that when establishments of the same kind shall have been founded in England, Germany, Spain, and Italy, families who may wish to see their sons study any language in the country where it is spoken, and to see them acquire, during their studies, a certain knowledge of foreign customs and institutions, will find in the different countries in question, at whatever age they may think proper to send their sons, a class corresponding to that which the youth will have reached in the school at St Germain. When will these corresponding establishments be opened in the neighbouring countries? You are the persons best able to answer that question; and you alone are in a position to decide, since the key of the European organisation of the work is in your hands. I cannot conclude this report without doing homage to the liberality and kindness I have experienced at the hands of his Excellency the Minister of Public Instruction. Personal motives of obligation join in my mind with the feelings of gratitude entertained by all who take interest in the development of education for the enlightened Minister who has given so powerful an impulse to the study of living languages. I should also merit blame if I omitted to mention the

efficacious sympathy which a member of the committee, M. Emile Péreire, has evinced towards this grand idea of international education."

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

Henry Elford Luxmore, of Pembroke College, Oxford, has been appointed Assistant Master in the Lower School, Eton.

The Rev. R. G. Watson has been licensed by the

Bishop of Salisbury to the Head Mastership of the Dorset County School.

The Head Mastership of the Taunton Grammar School has been conferred on the Rev. Wm. Tuckwell, M.A.

C. R. Browning, Inspector of Schools (India), has been appointed director of public instruction in the central provinces, in the room of Captain P. Lods, on leave to Europe.

Lieutenant G. H. Trevor, to the Inspectorship of Schools, *vice* Mr Browning.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—At the recent competitive examination for admission into the Higher Normal School, there were nearly 300 candidates for 40 vacancies. Ten years ago there were more vacancies than candidates.

In the primary schools maintained by the town of Paris, instruction is absolutely gratuitous; but it would appear from the following letter, addressed to the *Patrie*, by an inhabitant of *Montmartre*, in the northern quarter of Paris, that, even with that facility, primary instruction is not always within reach of the poor:—"On paying a charitable visit to a poor family at *Montmartre*, I found a wretched woman and five children; the father, who had been ill for six months, was in the hospital. I asked if the eldest of the children, a boy eight years of age, went to the district school; and was told that his name had been entered on the books eighteen months ago, but that his turn for admission had not yet come. Doubting the accuracy of this statement, I made inquiry and found that not only the school in *Dejean Street*, though capable of accommodating 200 pupils, was always full; but that there were nearly 600 children entered on the book for admission, and that a child has usually to wait more than eighteen months before its turn comes. I learned also that another school situated higher up the hill, was in like manner crowded; and that 300 candidates for admission were there entered on the books."

The authorities have thought fit to answer the above letter, by alleging that it exaggerates the number of children excluded from the schools by want of room; and that the requisite accommodation is being provided.

A great difference has hitherto existed as to position, between male and female elementary teachers in France. To the former is assured, besides a free house, a minimum annual salary of £24, made up, according to M. Guizot's law of 1823, still substantially in force, of school pence, the revenue of whatever property may have been bequeathed to the schools, and a contribution from the ordinary parish funds. Should these items not bring up the teacher's salary

to the legal minimum, an extra three centimes, somewhat more than a farthing, is added to one of the parish rates; should this also leave a deficiency, the county (*département*) makes it up by adding an extra two centimes, somewhat less than a farthing, to one of the county rates; and should a deficiency still remain, said deficiency is made up out of the imperial exchequer. On retiring from active employment, the male teacher becomes a pensioner of the State.

For female teachers, on the other hand, no free house is provided by law, no minimum of salary is fixed, no pension is guaranteed. Accordingly, it is not wonderful that elementary instruction should be less widely spread among girls than among boys, and that the great majority of elementary female teachers in France should be nuns. It is now proposed to extend to female teachers all the privileges of their male fellow-labourers.

Some object to these privileges being extended to teaching nuns, who, instead of a certificate of competency, gained by passing a government examination, produce, as by law they are entitled to do, merely the licence of their superior. However, the law which makes this concession to ecclesiasticism includes some arrangement for preventing its abuse. The local authorities themselves decide whether their school shall be taught by a nun or by a female teacher, and as the final appointment lies with the prefect, he may simply decline to appoint a teaching nun whose ecclesiastical licence does not inspire him with confidence; or he may consult the district inspector regarding the efficiency of the different candidates, and it is thought that the report of an inspector who has seen the different candidates actually teaching, is more to be relied on than that of an examiner who has merely added up the values of a few testing papers.

On the 31st July last, died M. Hachette, the great educational publisher of France. Destined originally for the office of teacher, and well qualified for it by a thorough education, he naturally, on purchasing M. Brédif's small business in 1826, turned his thoughts

to the educational department. The only important book which Brédif handed over to him was Burnouf's translation of Cicero's "Orations against Catiline;" but in 1833 came into operation M. Guizot's Education Bill, and with that M. Hachette's business acquired an almost national importance. School materials of every kind, as well as books, were required for the schools of which this Bill ordered the establishment throughout France; and these were supplied by M. Hachette with a happy inventiveness which the authorities recognised at once. M. Hachette thus became the grand purveyor of books for the instruction and amusement of the young. He also took the lead in popularising useful knowledge, witness the series called Popular Libraries, and the Railway Library; and at length he took a proud position among the publishers of elegant classical editions. He was the responsible manager of the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique*, an educational weekly to which we owe much of our foreign intelligence.

M. Hachette's energies were by no means confined to his own business. In particular, his philanthropy made him a student of social science, and a promoter of many social undertakings. He hungered and thirsted after work, and, it may be said, died of it at length at the unripe age of 64. His intention was to have retired in 1866, after completing his 40th year in business.

GERMANY.—The educational statistics of Leipsic shew that, while the attendance at the public schools has advanced with the population of the town, the attendance at the private schools has fallen off. The per-cent:ge of the whole population attending the public and private schools respectively was,

In 1831,	In 1864,
8.31 public.	13.01 public.
3.43 private.	1.14 private.
11.74	14.15

According to the *Allgemeine Schulzeitung*, an educational weekly, now in its forty-first year, and believed by its editor to be the oldest in Germany, there existed on the 1st January 1864, in that country, no fewer than sixty-three educational periodicals of

various orders, weeklies, fortnightlylies, monthlies, quarterlylies, and half-yearlies. The list is probably incomplete; at any rate, it does not profess to include either educational annuals or the periodicals devoted to special departments, as gymnastics, music, the instruction of the deaf and dumb and of the blind, and the combined instruction and entertainment of the young.

ITALY.—The extension of popular education in what used to be the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies has been signally accelerated since the incorporation of that territory with the Italic kingdom. Murat's decree, in 1808, for the establishment of an elementary school in every parish, had been carried out only in the larger towns when the Bourbons were restored in 1815. And the Bourbons did nothing whatever for popular education. Under them writing was dispensed with in the case of female teachers; and in 1843 the management of elementary schools was handed over entirely to the bishops. Whoever knows how overstocked the ranks of the priesthood have long been in Southern Italy, will not wonder that the bishops installed the supernumerary priests as teachers. They were paid about £1 a month; and their best pupils learned, besides Italian, a little Latin, that they might assist at the altar. Of such schools there were in 1860, when the Bourbon dynasty ended, from 1000 to 2000 in the Two Sicilies, i.e. in a population of 9,000,000. Garibaldi shewed his good will by ordering the full execution of Murat's decree; and very characteristically he required that every elementary school should be so managed as to prepare the pupils for military discipline. Immediately after authority passed into the hands of the Piedmontese, normal schools were established in all the large towns; and the normal school in the city of Naples has already given certificates of competence to nearly 3000 students. In the end of 1861, Southern Italy had 3649 elementary schools, with 81,300 pupils; and in 1863 it had 6842 elementary schools, with 181,100 pupils. Only 5 per cent. of the parishes are still without schools. There have been established also 380 adult evening schools, attended chiefly by young mechanics; and, besides, children in many cases teach their parents reading at home.

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS, QUEEN SQUARE, BLOOMSBURY.—The monthly meetings recommenced, after the usual summer interregnum, on Wednesday

evening, September 14th, with the usual proceedings of address, followed by discussion.

At a meeting of the Council of this Corporation

on 18th September. the Rev. Dr Kennedy was re-elected President of the Council; the Rev. Dr Collis, Dr W. B. Hodgson, and Jos. Payne were elected Vice-Presidents; Dr E. T. Wilson was re-elected Treasurer; Rev Dr Wrigley was elected a member of the Council. A number of gentlemen and ladies received diplomas of licentiate, or were elected members of the College.

HOME AND COLONIAL SCHOOL SOCIETY.—At the half yearly meeting of this society. Mr Reynolds, the secretary, gave an admirable resumé of the Educational Blue Book for 1863, interspersed with remarks of his own. The most important of these remarks related to the Decrease and Increase of Expenditure, National School Society's Regulations, and the Revised Code and its probable effects. On the first of these subjects, he said:—"It seems to give their Lordships great satisfaction that the amount of grants for building elementary schools is only 57 per cent. of the grants in 1862—and they might have added, only 33 per cent. of the grants of 1861. It is easy to save money if no work is done. The manger is clean where there are no oxen. The Committee of Council appear to think that when they can throw off an expenditure from the grants of Parliament and place it on the funds of the benevolent, it is so much actually saved. They are not aware of one of the obvious truths in political economy, that the expense to the nation at large of erecting a schoolhouse, whether it is paid for by Parliament out of the taxes, or by the benevolent out of their charity purses, is precisely the same. The expense is the labour employed, and what the labourers consume during the erection of the building. These are quite independent of the cash payment. When the money comes from the taxes, it is thrown over a wide surface, and contributed in very small sums, so as to be little if at all felt by each individual; when it comes from the benevolent, it is contributed in larger sums and by parties who have other and very special calls for charitable contributions—calls which they are too often obliged to neglect or refuse in consequence of the school demand." On the second he said:—"Their Lordships go on to state that the saving would net have been so great if the National School Society would have so far altered their regulations as to enable dissenting parents to withdraw their children from the religious instruction which they disapproved. It would appear, therefore, that the Council office, in consequence of these regulations of the National Society, have refused to give aid towards the erection of many schools proposed to be built in small parishes by members of the Church of England, thus keeping both the children of churchmen and dissenters without any school, because it was possible that some of the parents of the latter might not approve of the Church formularies. Whilst I

confess very little sympathy with the National Society on this particular point, and think that the concession they are called on to make would benefit rather than injure the Church, I have still less sympathy with the Council Office, and feel that they would have acted with more dignity and done far more wisely to have allowed the members of the Church of England to erect these schools on their own terms. It is a great point gained when a school building is erected in a parish. At present there are 2000 parishes with less than 1000 inhabitants, and 8000 parishes with less than 500 inhabitants, that have not schools with Government grants, and therefore with my experience I should say without schools, allowing for a few exceptions, worth anything." On the effects of the Revised Code he speaks thus:—"It is readily admitted that the reduction to which the Committee of Council refer is, indeed, mainly to be ascribed to the 'Revised Code,' and the poor teachers and the hard-working clergy, out of whose pockets much of the money must ultimately come, are, in my opinion, entitled to great sympathy and commiseration. After all, the amount is scarcely worth a tenth part of the stir which has been made about it, even if it were real gain. It appears that where the Code of 1860 gave 10s. 6d. per scholar, the Revised Code has actually given 8s. 1d., and ultimately, the Committee think, will give 9s. 3d. per scholar. Assuming this latter statement to be correct, all the changes which have made everybody connected with the real work of education thoroughly dissatisfied and disgusted will only save the difference between 10s. 6d. and 9s. 3d.—i.e., 1s. 3d. per head per annum for each child educated. Taking the children at present under education at 1,100,000, as stated in the Report, it will be seen that the total saving which the advocates of the new Code expect from elementary schools is £68,750. I confess it appears to me that, as there is no sort of comparison between the excellency and efficiency of the two Codes, the change was uncalled for and unwise. The case of the Council office, too, as it regards the old Code, might have been more fairly stated; it is said, for example, that the grants under that Code 'were paid or withheld in full,' and that this was objectionable. Admitting that such grants were paid in full, the regulation was their own, and might have been at any time altered by a Minute of the Committee. They might have directed a reduction of 10 per cent., or any other per-centage, exactly as they thought fit, and as done in the new Code. Again, it is said that the payment of pupil-teachers was 'necessarily uniform for the whole country, and therefore extravagant in many parts of it.' We ask, why use the word necessarily? It was over and over again suggested to the Council-office to have three scales, giving the Inspectors the power of deciding; but if this had not been approved, even

a scale for each county would only, in a slight degree, have added to official trouble. Once more, it is made matter of complaint that the highest grants to certificated teachers were often made to teachers of the smallest schools; but, surely, if it had been thought desirable, this, too, might have been easily altered by Minute. Nothing would have been easier than to have specified the average number of children which should be necessary to warrant the employment of teachers of the first, second, or third class, in the same manner as the Revised Code declares the number of children which shall be necessary to require the employment of one, two, or three pupil-teachers. The fact is, that the ingenuity of man never devised a more perfect scheme, taken as a whole, for the education of a nation, nor one more sound in principle, than the Code, as it is called, of 1840—really of 1846. Never before had any nation the power of doing its duty to its poor population in the manner this Code enabled England to do. Great is the responsibility of those who have defeated it. On the other hand, the Revised Code appears to me decidedly wrong in principle, and not properly applicable to what ought to be national education. Every alteration in detail which it has made of the least value, including that of examining the reading, writing, and arithmetic of the children, might and ought to have been introduced into the old Code, and we should not then have had the dislocation, the ill-will, and the heart burning, not to say the injury to the national faith, which we now all so deeply lament. It will, I hope, be a warning to the Government never again to appoint a Royal Commission on any subject without putting among its members some men at least who have a practical knowledge of the matter to be inquired into. These gentlemen are to be greatly blamed."

SCOTTISH SCHOOL-BOOK ASSOCIATION—The Committee of this Association met on Saturday the 17th ult., and agreed to vote the sum of £25 to Mr Keillor of Burrelton, to enable him to procure opinion of counsel in his case, and carry it on in the Court of Session. This is in addition to £50 formerly voted.

BURGH AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS' WIDOWS' FUND.—The fifty-sixth meeting of this trust was held on Friday the 16th ult., Dr Miller, the retiring president, in the chair. Mr Prain, parochial schoolmaster, Brechin, was elected president for the next year; Messrs Turnbull, W.S., were re-elected clerks, and Dr Knox, St Ninian's, cashier. From the cashier's statement it appears that the total amount of the fund is now nearly £100,000, being an increase of £2883 : 3 : 9. It was agreed that consideration of the report of the Committee in regard to a new Act of Parliament should be delayed until it is seen what is the result of the Commission which is shortly to inquire into the state of educa-

tion in Scotland, as it is probable, should a national system of education follow the report of that Commission, that considerable alterations would require to be made in the Widows' Fund Act. A strong feeling seems to prevail among some of the members of this fund, that, considering its prosperous condition, and the large sum now in its coffers, it would be quite safe to make some considerable addition to the sums paid to the widows and orphans on the fund.

ASSOCIATION OF FREE CHURCH TEACHERS.—The annual meeting of this body was held at Edinburgh on the 16th ult., Mr Lambie, Mariners' School, Leith, the retiring president, in the chair. In delivering his retiring address, Mr Lambie referred to some of the leading educational topics of the past year: some of these were, the extension of the Revised Code to Scotland; its subsequent suspension, and the announcement of a Commission of inquiry; keen debates in Parliament on the endowment minute, on the mutilation of inspectors' reports, and the consequent resignation of Mr Lowe. In referring to some of the objections to the Revised Code, Mr Lambie called attention to the numbers of rude, rough, and idle children that are sometimes found in the elementary schools, and to the difficulty of bringing them up to the standards of the Code, especially as the influences of the school are far too often counteracted by those of the home and the large street. The Privy Council states that there are numbers who have failed to be benefited as they ought. To benefit such, however, must be a work of time; and the rules of the Code will rather injure than benefit this class. The principle of paying for results was the bait with which many had been caught. In speaking of national education, Mr Lambie said, there were two points to be kept in view: first, how to get a thoroughly good scheme for the country; and secondly, how to introduce it with the least possible detriment to existing interests. Under the second head, provision ought to be made, that in the cases of existing schools adopted under the bill, the master, as a matter of course, should continue in his situation; and in the cases of schools superseded, he should, as far as practicable, get the appointment to the school by which his own has been superseded. Provision should also be made for meritorious, but incapacitated, teachers. After calling attention to the *Museum* as an educational journal well entitled to the support of the profession, Mr Lambie referred to the Burrelton Case. Whatever course Mr Keillor might be advised to follow, he was sure that he would command the sympathy of his brethren. If he was forced to evacuate, there was good reason to believe that his friends would extend to him such material sympathy as would enable him to continue the struggle by taking up a new basis of operations.

Mr Smith of Uddington was elected president for

next year, and Messrs Lambie and Morison were re-elected treasurer and secretary respectively. Mr Purves of Musselburgh proposed a motion, expressing satisfaction at the announcement of a Commission, and nominating a Committee to take steps to protect and promote the interests of Free Church teachers in any measures that may be proposed. The motion was adopted, as was also another, proposed by Mr Lambie, agreeing to co-operate in the present crisis with other bodies of teachers as far as opportunity offers. Mr Keillor of Burrelton then addressed the meeting on his case. The Sheriff, he said, had pronounced against him; but, having taken eminent legal advice, he had determined to carry his case to the Court of Session, and if need be, even to the House of Lords. The meeting expressed their sympathy with Mr Keillor, and their hope that his case would yet be brought to a satisfactory conclusion.

Next morning the members of the association breakfasted together, when various subjects of professional interest formed the theme of friendly discussion; the principal of these were the recent appointment of superintendent in the Free Church Education Scheme, and the claims of parochial schoolmasters who had resigned their charges, and thereby made heavy sacrifices, at the Disruption.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND.—The statutory annual meeting of this corporation, was held in the High School, Edinburgh, on Saturday 17th September, Mr Purves, Free Church Teacher, Musselburgh, the retiring president, in the chair. Before the business of the meeting commenced, Mr M'Master of Borgue called attention to a clause in the Stamp Act, passed in last session of Parliament, by which it is necessary that all commissions, mandates, &c., by which a person is entitled to sit and vote at any meeting of a society, should have a penny stamp upon them. Mr M'Master stated that they sat there as delegates by commission, and were liable to the duty. A long discussion ensued, some members contending that it would be advisable to adjourn till the commissions were stamped. Others were of opinion that they could go on to business, as the commissions were merely lists sent by the local secretaries to the general one, and the members themselves received no commission or mandate whatever. Ultimately it was agreed to send a deputation to the Inland Revenue Office to make inquiries on the point. In the mean time the president delivered his retiring address. After passing a high eulogium on the late Professor Pillans, and referring to the loss the institute had sustained in the retirement of Professor Ferguson from the secretaryship. Mr Purves pointed out some of the advantages the pupil-teacher system had conferred on Scotland; by it much better scholars had been produced in a shorter time, and

at much less expense to parents. Under the new Code the tendency would be to not only produce class schools, but to divide the pupils in each school into two distinct classes, for the one of which a grant of £12 per annum would be provided, for the other nothing at all. The effect of this distinction on the children, as well as on the parents and the school, must be obvious. Were the same principle applied to parish schools, to grammar schools, and to universities, there would be no ground for complaint. All these were supported by endowments more or less ample, of which all classes both high and low alike shared the benefits, but in such a way as neither to exalt the one or depress the other. Were the principle applied to such institutions, we would hear more of it. These regulations could never be dovetailed into our parochial school establishment, nor were they suited to work well alongside of it. Mr Purves concluded by expressing the hope that ere long a system of education would be established which would pervade all classes of the community.

The deputation from the Inland Revenue Office then returned, and reported that a verbal answer was declined to a verbal statement. As to the question whether a document requiring a stamp can in the mean time be used without a stamp, the only verbal reply given was, that if the document requires a stamp, no procedure can take place without the stamp. But when parties act *bona fide*, that may be taken into consideration in mitigating the penalty or otherwise abating it.

A long discussion ensued on this oracular response, and it was ultimately agreed, on the motion of Dr Gloag, to request all the secretaries of local associations present, to take the commissions and affix the requisite number of stamps, so that it might be seen that they were willing to act honestly towards the Government. This was done, and only those delegates whose commissions were stamped were admitted to the sederunt. On the motion of Mr Burns Begg, seconded by Mr Dickson, St Boswell's, a vote of thanks was then awarded to the retiring president, Mr Purves, who agreed to allow his address to be printed. Mr Dickson, parochial schoolmaster, Liff, was then chosen president. Mr Kennedy, Edinburgh, and Mr Low, Burntisland, were then elected vice-presidents; Mr Weir was appointed secretary, and Mr Cooper and Dr Gloag were re-appointed treasurer and secretary to the Board of Examiners respectively. The treasurer's report shewed that the total income for the year was £130 : 12 : 6; cash in bank, £248 : 10 : 11; sum invested in the Great North of Scotland preference shares, £500; balance in treasurer's hand, £3 : 4 : 1; liabilities, £60; leaving a total balance of £692, 4s. It was agreed, on the suggestion of the Glasgow association, to petition all the Scottish Universities to institute a preliminary uniform examination previous to the admission of students to any of the Arts Classes.

The Month.

HIGH SCHOOL OF EDINBURGH.—We look on the report drawn up by Mr Callender, and submitted to and approved of by the Town Council, as one of the most satisfactory documents of its kind which we have ever seen. The burgh schools of Scotland have a liberal constitution. The masters are subjected to no test; and while classics form the main study, provision is also made for the study of history and geography, the English language and literature, and other branches. The two great defects in the burgh schools of the large towns are that the boys pass on from one class to another without any examination, and that the masters are too few in proportion to the number of boys. The Town Council, at the instance of the rector and masters, has resolved to reform the first defect in the High School of Edinburgh, and we trust that the example will be followed by other schools. The second defect has not been grappled with. It may be laid down now as an acknowledged educational law, that a master, unless in very rare cases, should not have many more than thirty pupils in his class. The evidence in the "Report on Public Schools" to this effect is unanimous and conclusive. But some of the Town Councillors shewed themselves entirely ignorant of the "Report on Public Schools," and of the evidence contained in it; for they asserted that a school decreased in usefulness and prosperity when the numbers of the classes were reduced. We hope that the Commission of the Burgh Schools will make a sifting examination into this matter. And sure we are of this, that the only possible way to make the burgh schools of Scotland thoroughly effective, is to double or triple the number of teachers, and to increase their salaries. The office of master in a burgh school should be an object of ambition. It can be made so only by ample endowment; and the people of Scotland should therefore let a large portion of their superfluous money, usually devoted to hospitals, flow into a general fund for the improvement of their burgh schools.

We regret that the Town Council did not adopt the suggestion of the masters to appoint a teacher of science. Both science and singing should be taught in all classical schools. At present, as far as we know, they are taught in none of the Scottish grammar schools.

THE INSPECTORS' REPORTS.—The following paragraphs were, immediately before going to press,

crushed out of our last number. They are to be read in connection with the remarks on the same subject which we made last month:—

More extraordinary still, in connection with this same Circular, there is a curious discrepancy between the quotation from it given in the Special Committee's Report and the quotation from it given in Mr Lingen's evidence. In the former we read, "by the term 'state of schools under your inspection,' you will understand *facts observed* within the circle of your official experience." (p. iv). In the latter we read, "You will understand *schools brought* within the circle of your official experience" (p. 26). Which is the correct reading, "*facts observed*," or "*schools brought*?" and how do both expressions occur? Mr Lingen says "the terms of it (the Circular) were settled after great deliberation." These are, perhaps, alternative terms about which they deliberated. Probably the latter was preferred, with special regard to Mr Walter's motion. But what we want to know is how both expressions got into this report. Has there been collusion? For truly things are strangely managed in the Education Office.

Of this the evidence before us divulges other and yet stranger cases. Mr Lowe talks largely about "the discipline and subordination of the office." It would be well were some more careful supervision exercised over the clerks. We have already seen that the marking of the reports happened through "inadvertence or mistake." In the Cockburnspath case, the special or tabulated report of the inspector was sent to the managers in a mutilated form. The mutilation was complained of, when it appeared that an excision had been made by a clerk in the office, without Mr Lingen's knowledge, though the form containing the extract bears his printed signature. The report was subsequently sent down entire, and the clerk was informed by Mr Lingen, "if you purport to communicate the inspectors' words, you must not alter them, without giving him an opportunity of seeing them." Then the Coventry case presents a series of gross blunders which would have disgraced a country post-office. Indeed, Mr Lingen himself admits that "in this case blunders were accumulated," and adds, "I cannot defend all the mistakes that have taken place in this case." Certainly strange management this for a Government office. Yet we hear nothing of Mr Lingen's pension.

THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION.

IN this article we intend to discuss two much disputed questions: Is there a science of education? and is that science of use to practical educators?

In attempting to answer these questions, we must commence with a definition of education. This term is used in two senses, a general and a more restricted. In the wider sense, the term is applied to the drawing out of the powers of man, whatever be the agents which produce this effect. In this sense, external nature, the experiences of life, friends and enemies, in short, all that affects a man, are educating him. And a science of this kind of education would be an exhibition of the laws which regulate the development of his physical and mental powers.

In the more restricted sense of the term, education is the conscious efforts of human beings to draw out the natures of other human beings to the utmost perfection. This is the more usual meaning of the term, and it is in this sense alone that we shall use it. Education, being a conscious effort to effect a purpose, and implying the application of means to an end, is an art. When, therefore, we speak of a science of education, we do not mean to assert that education is itself a science, but that it is based on a science; that a set of laws which it is the business of a science to discover can be used in the work of education. Now, this science can be no other than the science of the natures which are to be drawn out; for if they are drawn out according to fixed laws, then the educator has simply to take advantage of his knowledge of these laws. In other words, physi-

cal education is an applied physiology, and mental education is an applied psychology.

We seem to have answered the first question in thus stating the case. Almost every one will allow that physiology is a science, and therefore there must be a science of physical education. And perhaps there are few who would refuse to psychology the same title, and therefore mental education has also a science to regulate its procedure.

We dismiss from our notice at present physiology, and confine ourselves to psychology. We remark in regard to it, that we only appear to have answered the question; for psychology may be a science, and yet not form a basis for the art of education. We must look more minutely into the functions of a science.

These are, generally speaking, two. The first is to bring the phenomena with which the science is concerned into groups, until the highest possible unity be reached. Thus, in natural history, the natural historian is principally employed in tracing resemblances, and thus grouping the various objects of his observation into classes. Now the psychology of this country has been, for the most part, occupied with generalisations of this nature. The various kinds of acts of the mind have been observed, and they have been grouped together under such names as memory, judgment, reasoning. They have been supposed to issue from separate and distinct powers of the mind. And even when the separate existence of these powers has been denied, we find them still used as generalisations under such terms as the presentative,

conservative, reproductive, representative, elaborative, and regulative faculties. Again, the great effort of psychologists has been to ascertain what have been called the laws of thought; but by the laws of thought they do not mean the regular and fixed activities in which the mind produces thought, but the highest generalizations of all the individual products of thinking. Now these laws never can be of any use in education. They are absolutely barren and profitless; and this is allowed by professed metaphysicians. "Supposing," says Mansel, "that the act of thinking is governed by general laws at all (and that it is so, is manifest from the inability to conceive absurdities), such laws can clearly impart nothing in the way of instruction or the discovery of new truths."* Accordingly, the practical educator may read through many treatises on psychology, and he will find curious discussions of insoluble problems, but he will not find much that will help him in his work. It is, we imagine, this experience which has led some to deny that there is a science of education at all.

But there is another function of science, and if we find psychological science discharge it, then we shall certainly have a science of education. This function of science is, from known and ascertained phenomena, to form generalizations which will explain and account for other phenomena. Such are, for the most part, the laws which constitute the physical sciences. We see one object affect another in a particular manner once; we notice it again and again, and still it affects it in the same way; and then we infer that the one object will always affect it in this way. We become acquainted thus with a considerable number of particular causes and effects; we then group the causes and effects, and express the result in a general law; and we expect that this general law will explain to us phenomena of which we have no direct means of discovering the cause. Now, if we could get a science of mind which should observe phenomena, causes and effects, and should group these causes into general laws, we should certainly have the kind of laws which we need. The previous generalizations of psychology which we have noticed are not properly laws at all; they regulate nothing. They are generalizations not of the activities of the mind, but of the products. Now, however, we are speaking of the generalizations of the activities. And we ask, Is a science of the activities of mind possible, and does such a science exist? The answer, it seems to us, must be, that such a science of the mind's activities must be possible. If we are to perceive

* *Metaphysics*, p. 231.

law anywhere, it must be in the phenomena of mind. We allow at once that such phenomena will be infinitely more complicated than those of matter; but this complication will not alter the fact of law. If a man has a strong desire for gold in his mind, I am sure that that desire for gold can be accounted for; that the strength of it can also be accounted for by the previous activities of the man's mind. Again, if a man is entirely deficient in the feeling of reverence, his deficiency must be explicable through the previous activities of his mind. In fact, the man's mind, in its present state, can be nothing else than the original powers of mind granted him plus the activities through which it has gone, whatever may have been the agents in producing these activities.

This point, then, we think, must be set down as settled, that law reigns in the phenomena of mind. There is the farther question, Have these laws been ascertained? Now we allow at once that all the laws have not been ascertained; but this is merely saying that the science has not reached perfection. It would be rash to say that any science has arrived at this stage. But if we can assert that one single law has been discovered, we have done enough to shew that a foundation for the science has been laid; and we can scarcely believe that any one will go so far as to contradict such an assertion. Our common psychological text-books are barren enough in the exhibition of laws of activities, but still they do contain some. The generalization, for instance, with regard to perception proper and sensation proper, that they are always found in an inverse ratio to each other in the degree or intensity of their existence, is a law that regulates the activities of the mind. And when psychology enables us to determine what it is which produces the intensity of the sensation and of the perception, we obtain the means of acting in a powerful manner on the minds of others. This the new psychology of Beneke does. Again, the laws of association, though in the common psychology they are mixed up with inoperative generalisations, are in the main laws of the mind's activity. We have such laws scattered over most treatises on psychology. We have them brought out more prominently in the writings of Locke, and in those of the Scotch school, especially Dugald Stewart; in the French school, who have worked out the Scotch; and still more fully and satisfactorily in the more recent works of Bain and Spencer, of Morell, and of Forlidge, Fichte, and others of the Germans, who are endeavouring to establish an anthropological psychology. But all these schools occupy themselves with subjects of discussion which are purely metaphysical; and it is

only in the works of Beneke and his followers that metaphysical questions and inoperative generalisations are entirely disbanded, except in so far as psychology has to account for the rise of such generalisations in the mind. And we wish to draw attention to the fact, that the effort to render psychology an exposition of the laws which regulate the activities of the mind, and not of the mere generalisations of its products, was occasioned by a desire to make these laws operative in education. It was principally the interest which Herbart felt in education that led him to his psychological investigations; and Beneke's labours had their direction given both by the successes and the failures of Herbart's system. It is also principally in educational works that one will find the facts, and many of the laws which ought to have their place in a scientific exposition of the phenomena of mind.

We trust, then, that we have proved that there is a science of mind, and that though it may not have reached perfection, yet it has discovered many important laws which regulate the mental activities.

The second question which we have undertaken to answer is, Is that science of use? This question has frequently been answered in the negative, because psychology has been supposed to occupy itself with those so called laws of thought, the uselessness of which, as regulative, we have already acknowledged. But if we have a psychology which will give us the laws which regulate the activities of the mind, then the answer must be in the affirmative. Either education, as an art, attempts its work at haphazard, or it attempts it with a knowledge of the adaptability of the means to the end. Now it is plain that education ought not to be a mere groping in the dark, a mere matter of chance. And if it is not, it cannot accomplish its end, unless that end be definitely known. And that end cannot be known but by an investigation into the activities and capabilities of the mind. Nor can it find suitable means to its end unless it know what effect the agents which act on the mind will produce. Both the nature of the person to be educated, and the power of the means used to affect that nature in a particular way, must be clearly ascertained.

All this will be allowed by some, and yet a negative answer given to our question. "It is true," they will say, "that the teacher should know human nature in the concrete, but it is questionable whether he should study the science of the phenomena of mind. For a great number of the best teachers never troubled themselves about the phenomena of human nature, and never read a treatise on psychology; but, guided by their

instinct and their tact, did the right thing at the right time, and made men of their pupils. Nay, we are not sure but a scientific knowledge of the phenomena of the human mind may render a teacher less effective in his work than he would have been without the knowledge."

There is some show of truth in these objections. There is no doubt that the man who devotes himself to the investigation of mental laws assumes for the time a state of mind adverse to successful teaching. The man who tries to discover new laws, fixes his eye on the similarities which present themselves in certain activities of the mind, and refuses to observe for the time the differences. And then after he has attained to the knowledge of the law for which he is seeking, his interest in the individual phenomena is apt to cease, and he contents himself with the general formula. It is the business of the teacher, on the other hand, to keep all the individual phenomena distinctly before his eye. In his action on his pupil, he must leave none of the peculiarities out of sight. He has to deal with a complicated series of individual phenomena, widely differing from each other. And therefore his state of mind is quite different from that of the man who is in search of mental laws. We allow this. But we assert, at the same time, that there is nothing irreconcilable in the two states. The psychological law in the matter is, that if the teacher consciously produce in his mind both states with equal intensity, he will be equally expert in both. If he practises himself in turning from the one state to the other, he will become expert in the operation. And he may thus be able to conjoin both modes of thought, without the one interfering with the other. At the same time, he is not called in a special manner to join both. He is supposed at particular times to have studied the phenomena and laws of mind. These laws are in his mind, ready to be summoned to the explanation of peculiar appearances in his pupils, so as to direct him in dealing with them. It is his business in his class-room to take all the features of a case into view; and psychology will give its aid, after he has made this particular examination, in explaining each individual peculiarity, and shewing how it is to be treated. He will leave the discovery of laws to another place and time, unless these laws actually force themselves on him, as they sometimes do. His main object will be to apply the laws that have been discovered.

Again, we allow that there have been many good teachers who have known nothing of the science of education, as it is given by philosophical writers. But when we analyse the tact which directs them,

we find it to be a kind of undeveloped knowledge of the laws of mind—a knowledge which the educator possesses, but to which, from its appearing in a state of weakened consciousness, he cannot give expression. An instance will explain what we mean. A teacher resolves to do his utmost to interest every member of his class. This desire grows in intensity, as the desire is repeated day after day, and we may therefore reckon it as a powerful motive. To fulfil this desire, he watches each individual pupil, and when the interest of any pupil flags, he does the very thing that will attract that pupil. His course of conduct in the various cases will be different, according to circumstances; but the one object he has in all is to interest them, and what he cares about especially is that he succeed in interesting them. After he has succeeded, and his work is over, we go to him and ask how he has contrived to attract the attention of pupils so different from each other. He cannot tell. Nay, very likely, he cannot give an accurate account of what efforts he made to interest each pupil, as he saw him flag. Why? Because the intensity of the desire, which in all cases was one and the same, darkened or diminished his consciousness of the various means which he employed for the purpose, and the processes of thought through which his mind went to determine these means. But there can scarcely be a doubt that his mind did go through processes; and if we could bring these processes into clear consciousness, we should find that he had determined his conduct according to the fixed laws of mind which he had at some time or other observed, though not definitely noted them down as such. But his tact may sometimes fail him; and what is he to do then? Moreover, he cannot communicate his tact to another. For both reasons, it would be of advantage to him to possess a scientific knowledge of the mind, and his tact would then become the deliberate and fully conscious application of means to an end.

A knowledge of the science of education is then, we believe, of great use to the educator. We shall point out three of its uses.

First, A knowledge of the science of education can direct us as to the right methods of education. It discusses the aims and ends of education, and the means to be employed for accomplishing the ends. It inquires into the nature of the being to be educated, into the subjects of study by means of which he is to be educated, and into the qualifications requisite in him who undertakes the duty of educating. A good method can be the result only of a careful deliberation on all these points. The science of education within these

last fifty years has received a great deal of attention; and what has been the consequence? A mighty revolution has by degrees taken place in our modes of teaching, and is still taking place. Look how differently infants are now treated from what they were fifty years ago; how the weakness of their power of attention is taken into account; how their puresensuousness is continually appealed to, and how every effort is made to help them to take in knowledge with pleasure, instead of its being crammed into them with a rod! And this change is the result of a study of the mind of the infant. We are adapting our modes to nature. Great changes have taken place also in our methods of teaching geography, modern and ancient languages, and in almost every department. True it is that, in multitudes of schools, the most perverse methods are still to be seen in use; but as a knowledge of the science of mind becomes general among our teachers, these perverse methods will vanish entirely. And we may expect that, as the science of education becomes more and more studied, improvements will take place even in schools where already vast improvements have been introduced. Take, for instance, the law that the human being must make his intuitions in sufficient numbers and accuracy before he can have representations; and that he must do the same with his representations before he can make his abstractions. This law is capable of endless application, in geography, in history, in mathematics, in theology; and though the law is partially recognised, yet we meet everywhere with departures from it. We have heard of teachers who taught geography without maps. It is no uncommon thing to introduce the child to a map of the world before he has the slightest conception of the size of his own county. Again, we see children receiving prizes for making long chronological tables of events and dates, as if that were history, before they had foundations in experience to help them to realise the events which they so painfully record, or the length of the periods which their figures indicate. And worst of all, children are compelled to commit to memory abstract theological propositions before they have the power of abstraction at all, or before they have felt the majesty of the Divine presence, the tenderness of the Divine mercy, and the peace that comes from confidence in God. Now all these, and many other, mistakes would be avoided, if our teachers had to undertake a complete study of the laws of the development of our nature. The science of education is still, comparatively speaking, in its infancy; and we cannot predict what possible discoveries may be made. There is

nowhere such an amount of change presented in phenomena as in those of the mind. The infant cannot distinguish at first one object from another; he cannot speak, he cannot will; he looks like a purely sensuous animal. Yet he emerges from this state into a consciousness of the outer world, into a consciousness of himself. Scientific psychology has endeavoured to ascertain the steps by which the child passes from the unconscious to the conscious state; and in this investigation has laid open the principal laws of consciousness. Through them we know how to bring what lies unconsciously in the mind to a state of consciousness. It then traces the gradual appearance in the mind of representations and reasonings, of æsthetic and religious thought and feeling, the formation of groups of desires, the excitement of feelings, and groups of feelings. When practical educators come to survey their work with a knowledge of the laws which have thus been discovered, we may confidently look forward to the time when greater improvements shall take place in our educational methods than any that have hitherto been suggested. "Behind education," says Kant in his "*Pädagogik*," "lies the secret of the perfection of human nature. From the present time onward this can take place. For now for the first time do we begin to judge rightly, and see clearly what especially belongs to a good education. It is delightful to lay before ourselves the thought that human nature will ever be better developed through education, and that education will be brought into a form adapted to humanity. This opens up to us the prospect of a happier race of men in the future."

Secondly, A study of the science of education will enable us to estimate the value of the various subjects of instruction in an educational point of view. There is nothing to which men are more prone than one-sidedness; but one-sidedness in education is often a fatal mistake. There is indeed great difficulty in apprising the educational power of the various subjects which are to be taught. For the activities of the human mind are the most complex of all activities. To render representation possible, in some cases thousands of intuitions have to be made, and intuitions blend with intuitions, representations with representations, desires with desires, and feelings with feelings, in such a complex way that analysis seems almost impossible. Yet there is no reason for despair. The phenomena are within reach. And if we patiently observe, we may be able to set down the educative power of any subject of study. Scientific psychology has attempted to do this,

and, we think, with considerable success. And the success will be greater and more certain in proportion to the accuracy of future observers. How valuable this analysis is we may feel in some measure when we see men of great literary power, who have not studied the science of education in all its ramifications, differ on the most ordinary subjects. We exhibited in a recent number the opinions of three of our Quarterly Reviews on Classical Education. Not one of them could determine what place classics should hold in education. Two of them had no distinct idea what the education of the nineteenth century should be, and the one that proposed a change set forth a plan which violates some fundamental laws of mind. We maintain that this uncertainty does not exist; that observation and a study of the laws of mind furnish us with ample means for determining what should be the right system of education; and that, if the science of education were better known and more studied, we should attain to something approaching unanimity of opinion.

Thirdly, As a corollary to the preceding, but a very important one, the study of the science of education enables us to calculate results, and is often the only means we have for so doing. A teacher, for instance, exerts a constant educational influence for four or five years on a pupil; but as soon as the pupil's education is over he disappears, and the teacher hears nothing, or next to nothing, of him for long periods. It is impossible for the teacher in such circumstances to trace the results of his exertions. Then education is effected not by one or two great efforts, but by myriads of repeated efforts, and the results do not shew themselves immediately, but often long after the pupils have gone into the pursuits of active life. Examinations indeed may test to what extent the pupil has retained the knowledge that was put into him; but this knowledge is, of all kinds of knowledge, least productive of true manhood. Though we may measure the reproductive power of the pupil to some extent, there is no gauge that can measure his productive power, his self-activity, his capability to think for himself, his intellectual individuality; and all these are the highest aims of an intellectual education. Again, there is no method of determining how far a teacher has been successful in instilling into his pupils a love for truth for its own sake, conscientiousness, courage, and a love of God and man. These in this world receive no special marks of distinction. They are not necessarily crowned by wealth, or fame, or honours. The man may pass to his grave possessed of the

noblest qualities, and having received the very best education, without the fact being known but to a few intimate acquaintances. Again, if a pupil turn out well, it is absurd to attribute his success to his teacher alone, as if his teacher could be the only cause. There are, as we have seen, thousands of influences acting on and developing in some direction the mind of every man; and even at the very time during which the teacher is exerting his influence, it would be impossible always to observe the effect of that influence in a given case. How much more complicated does the calculation become at a future stage! The boy who has been acted upon by the teacher in the way best calculated to bring out all his powers in the noblest way may turn out a wreck, a victim to the lowest vices; and the boy who would have been corrupted, if his teacher could have done it, may turn out upright, honest, brave, and intelligent. We have chosen extreme cases, but they are possible, for the influences acting on a boy's mind from other quarters may entirely overbalance the influence of the teacher. How then are teachers to calculate the result? By the careful observation of individual cases, by a careful consideration of what result each process of instruction or action is calculated to produce, we may determine definitely what ought to be the result of each mode of action and instruction. The total result of a teacher's exertions will be the accumulated results of all the individual exertions; and if he can thus determine in each case, he will feel assured that, as far as his exertions have gone, they have acted in really educating the boy. Now the science of education can, by a most careful analysis, come to something like an accurate determination of the effect which a special activity may produce. Its special work is to record cause and effect. The continued observations of scientific psychologists have determined certain fixed sequences, and will determine more of these sequences; and the teacher, guided by a knowledge of these, will follow one course, and avoid another. Especially in doubtful cases will he be glad to have recourse to this psychological analysis; and, in fact, there often lies for him no other course than either to proceed at haphazard, or to determine the matter according to the nature of the boy he has to act on, and the nature of the tools with which he has to work.

If we have at all succeeded in shewing that there is a science of education, and that a knowledge of that science is of great use to the educator, the practical conclusion follows that all teachers should study this science; and another conclusion follows from that, that all teachers should be provided with the means of studying the science. In other words, there should be in every one of our universities professorships of Paideutics. The teacher should be led through a survey of the whole sphere of his future activity by a man who has especially devoted himself to the investigation of the laws by which mind is developed. It may perhaps seem strange that it should be necessary that we should urge the demand that government should establish such professorships, but we are well aware how difficult it is to get government to do anything which is not asked for in a clamorous way by a large body of the people. Indeed, we have been partly led to write this article by a knowledge of what were the feelings of one at least of the government officials in regard to this matter. Last year the late Professor Pillans went to London in the hope of prevailing on Government to establish a professorship of Paideutics or Didactics, as he wished to call it, in the University of Edinburgh. He was armed with a letter from Lord Brougham, warmly approving of his design, and he was ready to contribute a large sum of money as a foundation for the professor's salary, if government would aid him. His expedition, however, was fruitless, and on coming back he told us that he had failed because Mr Lowe maintained that there was no science of education. All honour to Professor Pillans for his efforts, and, we trust, if his pupils raise any memorial to his memory, it will be in the shape of a chair of Paideutics.

In the mean time teachers should everywhere clamour for the establishment of such professorships, as the Educational Institute of Scotland has for years persisted in doing; and even should government fail to do its duty, perhaps some of those rich benevolent men who adorn our country may see that they could not invest a large sum of money in a way better calculated to be permanently beneficial to the masses of our population than in thoroughly equipped professorships of Paideutics.



SACRED LATIN POETRY.*

SACRED Latin poetry has had the same wholesome influence over English sacred song as the classical poets of Greece and Rome have exercised over our best secular poets and poetry.

Both are indebted to their Latin forerunners for much that is grand and beautiful in tone and manner; both embody many thoughts of their own origination in a garb and form, of which the pattern has been borrowed by us from antiquity. The freedom of our secular song has been restrained within due limits by that reverence of classical models which is strong in every man of education; the excesses into which fervour without refinement, and zeal without knowledge, will sometimes carry untutored hymn-writers, find their fitting correction in the study of the admirable patterns which we find in the hymnology of the early Western Church. It needs but to listen to certain almost extemporaneous effusions which in some congregations pass for hymns, and to observe how much of the grotesque, the vulgar, and the exaggerated is commonly infused into such compositions, to become possessed of a firm conviction that it is for the advantage of our ears, tastes, and poetical proprieties that a cultivation of Latin hymnology should be a necessary preliminary to the profession of English hymn-writing. It is for this cause that we think it were desirable that collections of the best and most famous compositions of this kind (to be found in the pages of Prudentius and his coevals of the fourth century, and in a long range of later hymnists down to the fifteenth or sixteenth), should be put within the reach of young students, and especially of such as are destined for the sacred ministry of the church. It should be, of course, a *sine quâ non* that such manuals should have been prepared by unbiassed and sound men, qualified by patristic study to explain difficulties and novelties, not at once apparent to those whose reading has lain rather in the study of classical antiquity; and, even more, that their compilers should be free from any leaning whatsoever to the errors of that church which asserts to itself the heritage of these hymns of old time; an assertion which every one knows she cannot by any subtlety make good. Much that has crept in, so as to disfigure with gross superstitions the Latin hymno-

logy, is the work of an after date. The mediæval theology is not to be unreservedly ignored and banned. The Church's work during its first thousand years is surely worthy our interest and reverent consideration; and as the learned Archbishop, whose able work calls forth these remarks, has so fitly and wisely observed, "Surely it is our duty to believe that to us, that to each generation, which humbly and earnestly seeks, will be given that enlightening spirit, by whose aid it shall be enabled to read aright the past realizations of God's divine idea in the visible and historic Church of successive ages; and to distinguish the human imperfections, blemishes, and errors, from the divine truth which they obscured and overlaid, but which they could not destroy, being one day rather to be destroyed by it; and distinguishing these, as in part to take warning from and to shun, so also in part to live upon and to love, that which in word and deed the Church of the past has bequeathed to us." (P. xi. pref.)

It is very common to find in the original Latin hymns more or less chaff mixed with the wheat, much lees left with the good wine; but there is no need that in judicious compilations, made at this time of the Christian world's day, aught should be retained that could offend the most Protestant ear, or encourage to error the most inexperienced and unwary. Dr Trench has proved this in the volume which we are happy to greet, in a new and improved edition, and which strikes us as in many respects the ideal of what such a manual as we have hinted at should be. No one can rise from perusing it without being led to desire to drink deeper at the sources of Latin hymnology, but at the same time no one can hit upon a passage in which a word or phrase savours in the least degree of Rome, without finding a footnote to explain, to define, and to guard the sound and safe doctrine. Such a work is of high value and usefulness; and so much do we appreciate it, that we could wish these hymns might be generally committed to memory in their Latin form by those who can read and understand them, and aptly translated into our own tongue to serve alike as devotional exercises, and as models of what true hymn-writing should be, for those who are too young to read them in the original.

We pass over the able introductory chapters, in which Dr Trench traces the differences between the classical or heathen poetry of Rome and the post-classical or Christian Latin poetry which

* Sacred Latin Poetry; chiefly Lyrical. By Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin. Second edition, corrected and improved. London: Macmillan and Co.

succeeded it. To those who are interested in a disquisition which deals with many nice philological points, they will be found eminently entertaining and satisfactory. Suffice it here to state, that it is shewn with much verisimilitude that the accentual system of poetry which in Latin sacred poesy supersedes the metrical system of classical Rome was never really absent from the Latin versification. It seems to have been observed in the Saturnian or Old Italian poetry, and to have been retained in the vulgar tongue, though it may have been kept out of sight in the days when classical literature was predominant. And the same is the case in a great measure with rhyme. It is noticeable in most classic poets of Rome, here and there. It came into fullest force when a religion which was that of peasant as well as priest, unlearned and learned alike, required a system of versification which should strike home to the hearts of high and low, rich and poor: and a mode of song which might grow popular through the helps of similar endings to verses, in aiding the memory of each member of a congregation. Rhyme indeed did not come into use for two or three centuries, but the principle of accentual rhythm early superseded the heathen hexameter and alcaic. Hence sacred poetry is like a new and unknown field at first to classical scholars; but it is a field which has its own attractions, and which, after a little acquaintance with it, will not easily be forsaken or forgotten. Sacred Latin song may not indeed possess the calm majesty of the Virgilian hexameters, but it has a heartiness, an earnest tone, a downright force, which classical poetry knows not. The themes are no doubt different: the songs of a religion that had to struggle against principalities and powers were likely to be more real and vivid than those of a mythology which the majority of the educated tolerated rather than believed. But the fashion of verse has something to do with the earnest air and tone of sacred Latin song, and we are persuaded that, much as one must admire the "*loci classici*" of a Virgil or a Horace, their metres could never have clothed fervour of devotion and upliftings of hearts a thousandth part as adequately as the rhythm of St Ambrose, or the rhymed measures of St Bernard. Of this none will doubt who will take the advice, which we tender to them, viz., to taste at least so much of the plentiful draught of sacred Latin poetry as can be approached in the pages of Archbishop Trench. His volume is one of specimens. It gives us many choice pieces of ancient hymn literature; many originals of English hymns which have won themselves a deathless popularity; many flowers culled from sacred poets whose names

have come down to us, and many again of which the authorship and even the age is uncertain. The specimens are not arranged chronologically, because the work is intended for devotional purposes; but to exhibit a bill of the fare provided, we may state that in it will be found three hymns of St Ambrose, a like number from the poems of Prudentius, three or four pieces from Fortunatus, a liberal allowance of St Bernard, and a very large measure of Adam of St Victor. Abelard, Alanus, Hildebert, Peter Damiani, are not unrepresented, and there are other hymnists who find a place in the collection for their masterpieces. It were a vain task to attempt to do more than direct the reader to most of these; but one or two may be specially noticed, by way of an incentive to the study and perusal of them all.

A hymn, than which none can be cited as more stirring and earnest, is that of St Ambrose, "*ad Gallicantum*," beginning "*Æterne rerum conditur*" (Trench, p. 243). It is a specimen of the hymns which depend for their charm on accent, and not rhyme, being of the iambic-dimeter metre, which Ambrose adopts preferably to any other. It is shewn by Dr Trench that this hymn is beyond doubt authentic, seeing that Ambrose in his prose writings (*Hexaem.* xxiv. 88), uses most of the images and turns of expression here used. The 4th verse—

"Hoc nauta vires colligit,
Pontique mitescunt freta:
Hoc ipsa petra ecclesiæ
Canente, culpam diluit."

"At his sound upstarts the sailor,
Ocean's straits are blythely calm;
When his matin song doth hail her,
Breathes the Church her pray'r and psalm.
She the rock-built strives to win
Early pardon for her sin."—(Tr. anon.)

affords the editor an occasion of shewing that St Ambrose did not mean here to understand "*petra ecclesiæ*" of a church built upon a man, by quoting a prose sentence of his, in which he distinctly explains "*faith*" to be the rock against which the gates of hell shall not prevail. The sixth verse of the same hymn, "*Jesu, labantes respice*," is peculiarly beautiful. Trench, we observe, reads "*lapsus cadunt*," in the third line, instead of the more usual "*lapsi*." In another hymn of St Ambrose, an Advent hymn, beginning "*Veni Redemptor gentium*," there occurs a stanza—

"Æqualis æterno Patri,
Carnis tropæo cingere,
Infirma nostri corpora
Virtute firmans perpeti,"

which Mone, in his "*Hymni Latini Medii Ævi*," seems to have misinterpreted. "*Cingere*" is, of course, the passive imperative; Dr Trench corrects the German editor's obscurity by translating the verse, Equal to the Eternal Father, Thou "clothest thyself with the trophy of redeemed flesh, so strengthening with everlasting strength the infirmities of our body." With the hymn of Ambrose, "*De SS. Martyribus*," p. 210, which commences, "*Æterna Christi munera*," we recommend a comparison of the English hymn "The eternal gifts of Christ the King," in that popular collection, "*Hymns, Ancient and Modern*," p. 242, p. 257.

Of the distinguished and best known early Latin hymnist, Prudentius, the editor has selected perhaps the two most striking specimens. Every one must have met with the "*Salvete flores martyrum*" in one form or other; and we know of nothing in hymnology to surpass this poet's hymn, "*In exsequiis defunctorum*." Perhaps we might be disposed to qualify our exclusive praise, at the recollection of the noble verses, "*de nativitate Domini*," which occurs in Daniel's *Thesaurus*, tom. i., p. 122, and is taken from the 9th Book of the *Cathemerinon* of Prudentius. It begins,

"*Corde natus ex parentis ante mundi exordium*," and ends each triplet with a fourth short line, "*Sæculorum sæculis*." It has been well Englished in "*Hymns, Ancient and Modern*," p. 41, p. 46, "Of the Father's love begotten." There is another version of it, perhaps more literal, in the *English Journal of Education*, vol. xii. p. 360. But, on the whole, if but two samples of Prudentius could find place in Dr Trench's volume, we must allow that he has chosen wisely. We are not disposed to accord the same sanction to his selections from Venantius Fortunatus. Surely the famous hymn on Christ's Passion, "*Vexilla regis prodeunt*," and that on the "Cross," commencing

"*Pango lingua gloriosi præmium certaminis*," were entitled to prior place to the hexameters and pentameters cited from him about the Cross and the Resurrection. To St Bernard he does more justice; and we should be glad if he would have strengthened instead of weakened the thought (born of the wish) that the lines, "*de contemptu mundi*,"

"*Cur mundus militat sub vanâ gloria*," &c., might be ascribed to him. Dr Trench seems to credit them to Jacob de Benedictis (see p. 264). But we are thankful to meet with his beautiful hymn "on the name of Jesus," "*Jesu dulcis memoria*," at p. 246, which is known to us all in the familiar English hymn which commences,

"Jesus, the very thought of thee," &c.

The hymn beginning—

"*Salve caput cruentatum
Totum spinis coronatum*," &c.,

is given as his; but the hymn sometimes ascribed to him, "*De vitâ mundanâ*," is given in full, and said to have no claims to St Bernard as its author. Its musical numbers, and its simple style, render it a favourite. No collection could profess even a moderate degree of completeness which lacked the *Dies Iræ* of Thomas of Celano, and this, of course, is given. So is Damiani's poem beginning "*Ad perennis vitæ fontem mens sitivit avida*." And so also is the hymn "On dedication of a church," p. 311—

"*Urbs beata Hirusalem, dicta pacis visio*,"

which is well described as "grand and rugged," but which, in its unpolished form, is finer than when it is recast into the smooth iambs of the Roman breviary. Pope Urban the Eighth is said to have been the polisher, and the author of the original is unknown. It is certainly not early enough for St Ambrose. There is a noble version in "*Hymns, Ancient and Modern*," pp. 243, 244, of which we give one stanza as a sample—

"*Tusionibus, pressuris expoliti lapides
Suis coaptantur locis; per manus artificis
Disponuntur permansuri sacris ædificiis*."

"Many a blow and biting sculpture
Polish'd well those stones elect,
In their places now compacted
By the Heavenly Architect,
Who therewith hath will'd for ever
That His palace should be deck'd."

A large preponderance of space is given to Adam of St Victor, as we have before remarked. He is evidently his editor's "beau ideal," though even he can hardly excuse the excessive love of this author for shewing skill in the typical application of the Old Testament. Clever and curious as this may be, it must needs be unattractive to general readers, and we submit that mysticism and obscurity are not the most desirable qualifications for a hymn writer. Much more tolerable, and indeed effective, is the general style of Hildebert, Dr Trench's second favourite. His lament over the church of Poitiers, *Somnium de Lamentatione Pictavensis ecclesiæ*, is a very fine piece of poetry (see pp. 221–226). In its 29th–30th verses,

"*Est vetustas hujus vestis
Novitatis sue vestis*,"

a somewhat difficult passage, we take "*novitatis*" to be equivalent to "of what it had been when it was new."

Want of space forbids our dwelling on the various anonymous or uncertain hymns in this collection, many of which are of great merit. Nor can we go further into the question of the learned Archbishop's critical and explanatory notes than just to say, that they are such as we might expect from his deep reading and extensive study of sacred and patristic literature. If there is a fault,

it is that he supposes his readers to know more than they commonly do, and leaves many points unnoticed. But, take it all in all, the "Sacred Latin Poetry" which he has given us, is a valuable, a most valuable, gift to the English Church, as well as to all those members of Christian churches, who desire to encourage a high pitch of excellence in their hymn-books and hymn-writers.



THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND AND THE REVISED CODE.*

NO great event has occurred in connection with the operations of the Institute this year. Its committees have not done very much, but, like wise men, they have refrained from doing anything rashly. They have, however, not been careless of your interests, or asleep at their post. They have been united and vigilant. There has been no jarring among them; the utmost harmony has prevailed in all the committees at all their meetings. The very existence of these committees is a great boon to teachers. They have been anxiously waiting and carefully watching every opportunity that might occur, in order to improve or benefit the profession; they are always ready to act for the advantage of education and of the educator in any emergency. Bodies of men can do what individuals, however influential, cannot face. If I mistake not, teachers are beginning to see this more clearly than ever. Hence the value of the Institute is becoming more appreciated, and it is now looked on with increasing favour.

We have had no legislative educational campaign this session; and, all things taken into consideration, this is perhaps not much to be regretted; for, while there is much need of legislation on the subject of education in Scotland, it is, I think, clearly established by the failure, the merited failure, of all the measures of the Lord Advocate, that no bill founded on the principle of compromise, will meet the necessities of the country. Legislation will not be satisfactory, either to the people or to the teachers, until it is undertaken and carried through by the Legislature entirely independent of either sect or party.

* Address given at the Annual General Meeting of the Educational Institute of Scotland, held in the High School of Edinburgh, on the 17th September 1864, by JAMES PURVES, Master of the Bridge Street School, Musselburgh, the retiring President. Edinburgh. 1864. We have omitted the introductory sentences.

The question should not be, how will the measure affect the interests, or influence, or position of one party or another, but, how will it promote the real good of the community at large? Many of the individual members of the Institute have a deep interest in the proper settlement of this most important question, as well as the Institute as a body. It is yet within the range of possibility, that, as indicated by the Lord Advocate in 1861, the Institute will be recognised, as a licensing body, in any measure that may be introduced to settle the education question in Scotland. This has been our grand aim since the commencement of our labours. Were this privilege conceded, it would consolidate and strengthen the Institute, and prove highly advantageous to the education of the country.

As parties have not hitherto agreed to a comprehensive system of national education, to supplement and extend the time-honoured and successful parochial school establishment, a substitute was found in the extension to Scotland of the Minutes of H. M. Privy Council on Education. This has had much to do with the success of the Institute. Teachers were encouraged to seek and obtain diplomas or certificates of merit from the Privy Council, and these had a money value, a golden seal, attached. As was to be expected, these Government certificates were, in very many cases, preferred to those of the Institute. Hence the Institute has had a very unequal race to run. This state of matters, however, is not destined to last always. The Minutes of Council are not sustained by an Act of the British Parliament: they were not originally framed for Scotland; they have all along been declared, by friends and by foes, lay and clerical, official and non-official, unsuitable for Scotland. They have, indeed, prevented a large number of teachers from joining the Institute, but they have not become a permanent institution. These certificates may, for

a trifling cause, or for no cause at all, lose their pecuniary advantages. I wish here not to be misunderstood. I do not mean to say that the extension of the Government scheme of education to Scotland has not done good, though it has in the mean time weakened the Institute. With all its unsuitableness and all its drawbacks, it has, I think, been productive of great good both to teachers and to teaching. It has given a stimulus to elementary teaching; it has largely increased the number of good schools; and being periodically visited and examined by learned, able, and practical teachers as inspectors, in whose hands a conscientious teacher is perfectly safe, the quality of the teaching, in many of these schools, has been very much improved. Any system of education, vigorously and energetically wrought by competent teachers, will produce good results. The pupil-teacher system, notwithstanding all that has been said and written against it, has, in my opinion, after sixteen years' experience of its working, been a great boon to the people of this country. It has repaid, in the increased amount and improved quality of education it has been the means of imparting to our youth, all the expense it has cost the country, with compound interest. In elementary schools in general, teachers cannot afford to pay regularly-trained assistants, or indeed any assistants; and one teacher, however able, and however energetic, cannot do justice to all his pupils in a large school, in which a number of branches is taught. The pupils cannot all be well taught. It must be remembered that the work of the pupil-teachers is over and above the work of the master. Parents have received the advantage of this extra work without extra charge; and, whether they think so or not, it has been no small advantage to them and to their families. I do not hesitate to say that I have found the pupil-teacher system work well. Much better scholars have been produced in a much shorter time, and at much less expense to parents.

While I thus bear willing testimony to the advantages derived from the extension of the Government scheme to Scotland, it is quite obvious that, *as a whole, its tendency*, if not its design, is not to aid the Institute in raising the profession, but to introduce class schools—schools for one class of the people, schools for the poor,—and to bring down the teachers of the public schools in Scotland to the level of common school teachers in England, where we find no schools of the same standing as our parish and other such schools. In England, the higher schools and universities are closely associated, while these have no connection whatever with the elementary schools. The edu-

cational impulse given at the Reformation, *never reached*, in England, *lower than the middle classes*. Bell, the founder of the system that bears his name, not fifty years ago, while endeavouring to arouse public interest on the subject of education, said, "It is not proposed that the children of the poor be educated in an expensive way, or taught even to write and cypher." I fear some such views in regard to over-educating the people prevail in certain quarters even now. In Scotland, the educational effects of the Reformation, under the enlightened and liberal views of John Knox, *descended through all classes, even to the children of the peasant*. So judiciously harmonised was the course of instruction laid down for even the lowest parish school, and developed in the university, that the son of a labouring man might rise to the first place in university distinction. It is well known that in these schools, besides the ordinary branches of education, such other branches have all along been taught as have qualified and enabled Scotchmen to take a position wherever they have wandered. And where have they not wandered? It has been said, that in every region, and in every clime, you will find a Scotchman and a Newcastle grinding-stone. The very humblest man, who earns his bread by the sweat of his brow, has thus had an opportunity, in the most remote locality, and in his own immediate neighbourhood, at a cheap rate, of giving a son of more than ordinary promise a superior education, and of preparing him for college or the counting-room, and thus enabling him to adorn and benefit society by his talents and acquirements. These advantages have been, and are now, highly prized and extensively embraced by the people of Scotland. Many of us who have been long in the profession can number old pupils, trained in such schools, whose career of usefulness and of honour has been a credit both to themselves and to the schools in which they have been taught. These young men, but for the education and training obtained in these schools, never could have occupied such positions. In the common schools of England, the common branches alone are taught; and while in many of these schools these are admirably taught, the teachers do not profess to teach the branches necessary for the higher walks of life. Those parents who wish to give their children a superior education, and those pupils who are designed for the professions, must seek what they require elsewhere, often at great inconvenience, and always at great expense. This may suit the purses and the inclinations of the people across the border. It will suit neither the one nor the other in Scotland. If the Scottish public

schools are lowered to mere elementary schools in the English sense of that term, not only will a great injury be inflicted on the people of Scotland, but the teachers will without doubt be drawn down along with them. The tide is flowing in this direction. Class schools, in the sense that has been indicated, appears the order of the day. This has clearly appeared from recent negotiations on the subject of education with men in power. Of course, it will be understood, I refer not to private adventure schools, established by enterprising teachers, in our cities and larger towns, to suit and accommodate the different classes of society. These excellent institutions have an undoubted right to regulate their own affairs as they choose. It is of *public schools* I speak.

If this has been the *tendency of the introduction* of the Government scheme into Scotland, it is *clearly its design under the new regulations*, lately adopted in England, and threatened to be introduced into Scotland. Under these regulations, as originally issued, there were some strange things. Class was carried so far that scholars were to be classified by age—a given amount of education at a given age—as if age and intellect advanced at the same rate. As well expect the trees of the forest—the sturdy oak and the spreading pine—to reach the same size at the same age. This condition has been wisely removed. Yet, under the new regulations, the schools would not only be class schools, but, in almost every school in Scotland under inspection, *there would be two distinct and separate classes of pupils*. We surely have enough of class in general society without bringing such distinctions into our schools.

I am the more anxious to say a few words on this subject, because, as it appears to me, it is by far the worst feature of these regulations—it will thwart the object the Institute has in view, and prove injurious to the country; and because, so far as I have seen, amid all the discussions that have taken place in connection with these regulations, it has either been wholly overlooked or very slightly touched on. Sitting on the same form, and engaged in the same work, there would be found these two classes of pupils. For the one class, a direct capitation grant of not more than twelve shillings is provided; for the other, no grant is provided at all. The father of a family is a journeyman tradesman, with steady wages paid regularly in full, and he is entitled to Government aid in educating his children; the father of another family is a working master tradesman, with his eldest son as an apprentice, sometimes well paid for his jobs, sometimes ill paid, and sometimes not paid at all, perhaps more needy

and more deserving than the well-paid journeyman, and there is no grant for him. It is proclaimed to all that the former is unable to pay for the education of his three children, while the latter is judged and certified as perfectly able to pay nine shillings a quarter for each of his five children at school, or £9 a year. Now the effect of this on the children themselves, on the parents, and on the school, must be very obvious. It is surely making an invidious distinction, where no distinction should exist; it is surely an innovation on the venerable parochial system of Scotland. The very glory of the parish schools is, that all classes, all sects, and all denominations can meet there on an equal footing, without degradation or distinction of any kind, excepting the one grand distinction of scholarship. "If a principle is worth anything," says Benjamin Franklin, "go through with it." Were the principle universally applied to parish schools, to grammar schools, to high schools, to universities—to all colleges and schools endowed by the State, or assisted at the public expense, either from the national purse or by local assessment,—there might be some good reason for its application in schools aided by the Privy Council. Were parents, in all the endowed colleges and schools of the country, subjected to the same test, there would be nothing to complain of; but it is well known that parents of all classes send their children to our parish schools, our grammar schools, our high schools, and our colleges, without let or hindrance, without the boys being asked whether their parents are journeymen or master tradesmen, and all, high and low, rich and poor alike, share the benefits of the endowment, but in such a way as neither to exalt the one nor degrade the other. In almost all of these parish and grammar schools, the endowment from public funds amounts to from *one to two pounds a year for each pupil*, and in our universities, to from *three to four pounds a year for each student*, yet there is no classification of rich and poor in these institutions, some paid for and some excluded. Were it applied to such institutions, we would hear more about it than we have yet heard. It is strange that the poor should be stamped one by one as unable to educate their families—it is strange that a parent just above poverty should be the only party excluded from public assistance in educating his family—when the middle and higher classes, whose children attend our higher public seminaries, are so largely aided, in a way so delicate to their feelings, that few of them know it. These establishments require an endowment—I could rejoice to see their endowment

very much increased; but it is only fair, it is only reasonable and right, that other schools in the same country, if they are to be aided at all from the public funds, should be placed in similar circumstances, and not be subjected to the classification of the new regulations of the Privy Council. The members of the Institute, as well as other teachers, have strenuously exerted themselves, by petition and otherwise, to prevent these regulations taking effect in Scotland. They cannot be dovetailed into our parochial school establishment. They are not suited to work well alongside of it. These regulations, so much disliked and so unsuitable, have been in part suspended in the mean time, chiefly, if not wholly, through the efforts of the profession, in which the Institute, both by its General Committee of Management, and by the various local Associations, has had its share. The profession, more especially that part of it connected with the Government scheme of education, is under a deep debt of gratitude to the members of Parliament for Scotland, for their united and successful exertions in the House of Commons in obtaining this suspension. It is just unfortunate that they have not been suspended *me die*, which, I believe, in ecclesiastical procedure, is *de facto*, if not *de jure*, equivalent to deposition. A Royal Commission of Inquiry into the actual state of education in Scotland is the immediate result. I purposely refrain from saying a word about this Commission. Its labours, it is hoped, may issue in a measure that will bury in perpetual oblivion the new regulations of the Privy Council, and bring the long-agitated educational question to a satisfactory termination. It will be the duty of the Institute, on behalf of the profession, to watch its progress.

Before I close, perhaps you will allow me to glance, for a few moments, at some of the benefits teachers have already derived from the Institute. It was the firm belief of those wise and far-seeing men who, at great expense of time and labour, at last succeeded, in 1847, in forming and establishing the Association, that no extensive or effectual measures could be adopted for promoting the professional or personal elevation of teachers while they remained in a state of isolation; and that, as the teacher is the school, whatever change for the better should be made in our system of education, it should begin with teachers themselves. Previous to the establishment of the Institute, teachers looked at each other askance, from a distance, separated not only locally, but by petty jealousies, which induced them to avoid each other's society. The best interests of the profession were entrusted to the hands of others,

and were either patronisingly attended to as a favour to those who were unwilling or unable to look after their own affairs, or were, as was generally the case, totally neglected. The position of teachers is now very much changed. The Institute has already done some good. Teachers are no longer isolated, if they incline to associate with their brethren. They have, as in duty bound, made an attempt to improve themselves, and to manage their own affairs. How many friendships has the Institute been the means of forming! How many young teachers has it been the means of aiding and encouraging! How many teachers, young and old—and I gratefully acknowledge myself one of them—have been profited, intellectually and professionally, by being associated with the highest and most experienced members of the profession! As a great brotherhood, each feels an interest in the success and prosperity of each. Consider the advantages derived from attending the local Associations. These Associations have been the means of developing latent talent, of calling forth the energies of individual teachers, of disseminating valuable information connected with educational movements, of making known discoveries and improvements in the art of teaching, and of giving opportunities of mutual sympathy and encouragement in the midst of difficulties. They have brought together, as friends, those engaged in the same work in the same neighbourhood, who might have been separated for life, and sent them back to their several spheres of honourable labour with their minds invigorated and whetted for renewed intellectual exertions, and emulous of professional distinction. These Associations have "raised the standard of abilities and attainments" among the members of the Institute, and have given "a higher tone and character to the education of the community." The Institute has not indeed accomplished all the good many of its more sanguine friends wished and expected. It should be remembered that such an institution requires time to mature its strength and to confirm its vigour. Some of these friends have unwisely left the good ship while becalmed and in difficulties, because their extravagant hopes have not been realised. We aver that teachers are in a better position, and have more influence now, than when the Institute was established. Had teachers in Scotland at that time the professional status they now have? Could the teachers of Scotland twenty years ago have done *anything* to elevate the social grade of the teacher, while they remained in a state of isolation? Could they have done anything to advance the interests of education, or

ward off threatened injury? If the Institute has done nothing, as some will persist in saying, it has, even they will allow, made a grand attempt to do a great thing; and if the attempt should prove a failure, the cause of the failure will be the impatience and indifference of teachers themselves—their refusal to take part in the good work. If the noble vessel do go down, it will not be by the violence of the storm, it will not be for the want of a fair measure of success in accomplishing the objects originally contemplated; but it will be by the crew forsaking the ship in the time of need. Better things are expected.

The object is at least worthy of their support, and the support of the community at large, seeing it is nothing else, and nothing less, than to raise the qualifications of the teacher, and thus raise his status, and so to promote the interests of education, religious, moral, and intellectual, that there shall be a good teacher and a good school in every corner of our dear old fatherland.

"The whole people should be taught and trained;
So shall licentiousness and black resolve
Be rooted out, and virtuous habits take
Their place, and genuine piety descend,
Like an inheritance, from age to age."



SCOTTISH POPULAR EDUCATION.

A HISTORICAL SKETCH.*

WE meet with little information as to the emoluments of the schoolmaster in Scotland, till about the middle of the sixteenth century. In the account of the "common guid" of the town of Haddington in 1557, three years before the Reformation, we find the following entries: "Item to the sculemaister of fee xx merkis;" "Item for sculehous mail xl s." This was ere they adopted the reformed doctrines, as the very next entry testifies:—"Item to the bellman for praying for all cristyne saullis, xiiij s. iiij d." When reformation principles became the law of the land, viz., in 1560, the church revenues were seized by a needy and somewhat unscrupulous nobility; and so the Protestant ministers found themselves, as much as ever, dependent upon the scanty voluntary gifts of their hearers. This naturally led to complaints; and these roused the Privy Council to action. In 1561, it was resolved that church property should be divided into three parts—two for the ejected popish clergy, and the remaining third for the Court and the Protestant ministers. "I see," said Knox, when he heard of this arrangement, "twa pairtis freely given to the devill, and the third mon be devyded betwix God and the devill." "So busie," continues he, "and circumspect were the modifiers (because it was a new office, the term must also be new), that the ministers should not be over-wanton, that an hundred merks was sufficient for an single man, being a common minister: thre hundredth merks was the hiest appoynted to any except the superintendent and a few uthers."—(*Historie*, p. 301.) Sir

John Wishart of Pittarrow was comptroller of the modifiers, and he pinched the ministers so much, that it became a common saying: "The gude laird of Pittarrow was an earnest professor of Christ; but the mickle devill receave the comptroller." In acting thus, Sir John seems to have been gratifying his natural disposition, rather than any higher principle, if we may credit the following doggerel rhyme, quoted to the writer by an old man whose family for generations have dwelt in the neighbourhood of Pittarrow. It was a common school-boy salutation in his youth; but without any definite personal application except to a "laird" long before gathered to his fathers. In this fashion they admonished each other as to the shortsightedness of uncharitable thrift:—

The laird o' Pittarow,
He's grown so narro',
He winna lat the puir birdies
Gather up the straes;
But bye come knaves,
An' they run awa
Wi' hale thraves.

It is to the credit of the reformed ministers that, though in extreme poverty themselves, they endeavoured to procure a share of the church's patrimony for the schoolmaster, as is abundantly evident from the Books of Discipline. Indeed, it would have been well for Scotland, and well for her schoolmasters, had the enlightened and liberal views of the reformers been adopted. Nor does it lessen the honour to be ascribed to them, supposing we hold that the schoolmaster, till that

* *V. Museum*, August.

time in more or less close connection with the church, her servant, and paid from her patrimony, had an equal right to have his claims considered side by side with those of the clergy. We say it does not lessen the honour due to their advocacy; for otherwise the claims of the schoolmaster would have been unheard of. Then, as now, schoolmasters seem to have laboured under an awkward, if not reprehensible shyness, in making their wants and wishes known.

It was well the church should interest herself in regard to the temporal concerns of the schoolmaster; for she shewed no slackness in superintending and directing his daily work from the first. In 1562, Dec. 25, we find in the records of the Universal Kirk, that "Mr Robert Cumming, schoolmaster of Arbroath, was complained upon be the Laird of Dun, Superintendent of Angus and Mernes, for infecting the youth committed to his charge with idolatrie." This same year, 1562, the church was the procuring cause of the passing of an Act of the Scottish Parliament, ordaining that, "Forsameikle as be all lawis and constitutions, it is provydit that the youth be brocht up and instructit in the foir of God and gude maneris, . . . Quhairfore . . . (it is) . . . statute and ordanit that all sculis to burgh and land . . . be reformat; and that nane be permitted nor admitted to have charge and cure thair of in tyme cuming, nor to instruct the youth privatelie or openlie, bot sic as sal be tryt be the superintendents or visitours of the kirk." Nor did this Act remain a dead letter. In the before-cited "common guid" account of Haddington, under date 1576, we find: "Item to ane boy to beir ane bill to the minister of Lithgow, to try the condition and ordour of the scule maister, x s." And in the Records of the Presbytery of Haddington, June 2. 1596, we read:—"It wes ordanit be the presbyterie, that the hail schoolmasters within thair bounds sould be chargit to compeir befor thame, that thay might not only know how yai wer abill to instruct the youth, Bot also charge thame to keip ye exercise yt. yai myt be ye better frequented with the heids of religion." But sanctioned though it was with the weight and authority of an act of parliament, the claim of the church was disputed, and, strange to say, successfully. In the *Chronicle of Perth*, we are informed under date, June 1632, that "Mr John row was admittit master of the gramer scule, be the provost, bailies, and counsell, without consent or woat of ony utheris; quha affixit ane edict and declaratioune in Latine, ane oration de lingua, de sermone. The ministeris and presbyterie prest to have tryed him, but we would not admit it, for the quhilk

thair was much outcrying in the pulpett." The worthy magistrates of the Fair City, no doubt, imagined that the paymasters ought to have the choosing of the servant. They occupied the former position, for in the accounts of their "common guid" for the very next year, 1633, occurs the entry: "Item to Maister John Row, maister of the grammer scool thair, ijci. merkis." Indeed young and old in Perth, about this period, seem to have had a good deal of independence in their ways of acting, if we may take the following as a fair sample. Both are from the same source, the forecited *Chronicle*:—"Jan. 7th 1594. Because that the scholars, in time of preaching, by their tumults, and running through the kirk, and likewise by their clattering and fighting, do trouble both the teachers and hearers, therefor Oliver Peebles and Patrick Blair, elders, are ordained to propone to the bailies and council the next day of their convention, that ane seat and place may be biggit for the scholars in some commodious place of the kirk, where they may hear and learn without troubling either the minister in teaching, or the auditory in hearing." "Jan. 1. 1661, George Dickson verbally complained he was abused by Francis Scot, — Thomson, *alias* Bellicald, and certain other their sociates, young profest knaves, by casting their bonnets at him in the kirk this day. The Session ordained them to be apprehended. Jan. 2. Thomson only was apprehended and taken to the Grammar School, and scourged with *St Bartholomew's Tawe*." At this period apparently the master was held responsible for the behaviour of his pupils, both Sabbath and Saturday, having seemingly the harder task on the more sacred day. An epidemic desire for squabbling and noise in church seems to have seized on Scottish children, both north and south. So troublesome had they become in Aberdeen, that not only had they to get a portion of the church set apart for themselves, but an act of the magistrates was passed, forbidding children under a certain age being brought to church at all. Indeed, Perth was reduced to almost the same extremity, for in the *Chronicle*, under date June 24. 1616, we read: "John Tinner, session-officer, is ordained to have his red staff in the kirk on the Sabbath days, therewith to waukin sleepers, and to remove greetin' bairns furth of the kirk."

The year 1616, in which this suggestive and useful order was recorded, is one that deserves to be remembered in connection with the history of Scottish Popular Education, as one in which a great advancement was made towards the formal settlement of our present parochial system. On

November 2. of this year, James VI. writes from Whitehall to "his right trustie and right well beloved counsellouris," the members of the Scottish Privy Council, that, "Whereas it is necessarie for the better establishment of true religion, that children be catechised and educated in the knowledge of the groundes thereof from their tender years; and whereas manie parents are so negligent and careless in that point, as their children being eyther altogether ignorant, or carelesslie instructed, and, when they come to age, easily perverted and drawn to Poperie;" therefore his most sacred majesty intimates his pleasure, that an act be made and published, commanding all parents to use the means in their power to instruct their children, and to present them to their ordinary pastor at the usual diets for catechising, as well as to the bishops at every visitation, to be tried and confirmed, "with certification, that such parents as shall neglect these means, shall pay according to their quality, a pecuniall soume, without anie remission." On December 10. accordingly, an act was published in terms of the royal letter. But the council did more. The same day they passed an act that, "Forsameikle as the kingis majestie, having a speciall care and regaird that the treu religion be advanceit and establishit in all the places of this kingdom, and that all his majestie's subjectis, especially the youth, be exercised and trayned up in civilitie, Godliness, knowledge, and learning. That the vulgar English tounge be universallie plantit, and the Irische language, which is one of the chief and principall causis of the continuance of barbaritie and incivilitie amangis the inhabitants of the Ilis and Heylandis, may be abolisheit and removit." And as no means could better further "his majestie's princelie regaird and purposis" than the establishment of schools, therefore it is appointed that a school be planted in every parish, "whair convenient meanes may be had for interteyning a school;" the expense to be borne by the parishioners "at the sight, and be the advise of the bishop of the diocie;" commanding "all the bishoppis within this kingdom, that they and everie ane of them . . . deale and travell with the parochinaris of the particular parrocheis, . . . to condescend and agree upone some certane solide and sure course how and by quhat means the said scoole may be enterteyned."

The bishops, however, seem to have been somewhat remiss, for on Aug. 25. 1626, ten years after the preceding act, King Charles writes from Windsor somewhat sharply:—"To the archbishops and bishops. Right reverend, we are in-

formed that it was provided that English schools should be established in all the parochins within our kingdom, for better instructing of children, and of the vulgar sort, in the knowledge of the true religion, and for the better civilising and removing of the Irish language and barbaritie out of the heigh landes there; and that all bishops . . . should see the same . . . performed at such places . . . most fitting for the ease of the said children, setting down a competent meanes for the entertainment of the schoolmaisters, which course (as we are likewise informed) hath not been by you putt in execution with such exact diligence as was requisite in a matter of such importance;" and therefore his majesty tells them it is his pleasure that they see the act carried out in its full integrity.

Nor was this sharpness uncalled for. Whatever may have been the reason, whether that the bishops found themselves sufficiently worked in providing for their own immediate or eventual safety, amid the political heavings that already gave token of the approaching storm, or whether they thought instructing "the vulgar sort in the knowledge of the true religion" a dangerous procedure, we cannot say. Certain it is, however, that Scotland was worse off for schools now, after ten years of their fostering care, backed by the weight of such an authority, than she was years before the act was heard of, when schools and schoolmasters were left very much to take care of themselves. In 1611-13 there was held a visitation of parishes in the "Synod of that part of the Diocie of St Andrews qlk lyeth benorth Forth." The state of education formed a special point of inquiry. Tannadice, Perth, Fettercairn, Strathbrock, Falkland, Forgound, Ebdie or Newburgh, Inerkillor, Barrie or Panbride, Kinfaunds, Kinnaid, Inchture and Benvie, Mains and Strathmartin, Burntisland, Inneraretie and Mathie, and Errol are reported as possessing schools. Rescobie, Ferryport-on-Craig, St Vigeans, Kilspindie, and Rait, Liff, Logie and Innergowrie, Murhous, and Monifuth, are reported destitute. Thus of the twenty-four parishes reported on, sixteen, or sixty-six per cent., possessed schools, and eight did not. Bearing this in mind, as indicating, generally, the state of popular education in 1611, turn we now to 1626, the date of Charles's letter to the Bishops. On April 12th, the year following, an ordinance was issued by his majesty's commissioners for the plantation of kirks, that returns from every parish in the kingdom should be made to said commissioners regarding the state of church property, church and school accommodation, &c. The returns seem to have been generally made.

and are invaluable to parochial historians. Unfortunately, only forty-nine of these have been preserved, embracing parishes throughout the country from Maidenkirke to John O'Groats, and even beyond it, for there is one from *Ultima Thule*—Zetland. What do these eloquent witnesses tell us? Of the forty-nine, five make no mention of education at all; of the forty-four references, nine, or eighteen per cent., report possession of schools, though of them two or three express apprehensions of losing them from the want of adequate maintenance; while thirty-three report the total absence of schools in any shape, though in the most pressing need of them. The need we can readily believe, when we know that of the one hundred and fifty-five men in the different parishes, who furnished these returns, and who, as being chosen for this purpose, would most likely be the best-informed men of the bounds, sixty-one, or about thirty-nine per cent., are unable to sign their own names. In one parish, Mordington in Berwick, the answer in regard to education is:—"There is ane greit necessaite of ane skule, for not ane of the parochie can reid nor wryt except the minister." Truly there was "ane greit necessaite;" but nothing was done to relieve it till 1633, six years afterwards, when the Scottish Parliament ratified the act of Privy Council, recommending strongly the establishment of a school in every parish, with the additional proviso, that the bishop and the majority of the parishioners, with the heritor, if he made his appearance, without him if he did not come when "lawfullie wairnit," might proceed to set a stent upon every plough or husbandland for the maintenance of the school. But this act, though a further advance in the right direction, was too feeble to overcome the scrupulous fears of the bishops, or the short-sighted selfishness of those on whom the new burden would have fallen. Perhaps the lukewarmness of the one party, and the interested opposition of the other, may have been nursed by the secret consciousness that these educational measures were meant but as sops to the Presbyterian Cerberus, and only intended to be carried out so far as to shut his mouth, that royalty might play its game undisturbed by his persistent barking.

The fourteenth of June 1645 gave Cromwell and his Ironsides the victory of Naseby. This, following so closely upon Marston Moor of the previous year, completely broke the power of Charles. The surrender at Newark took place 5th May 1646. Three months before, viz., in February of the same year, an Act of Parliament was passed, bearing stamped unmistakably on its

every clause, that if disobeyed, it was at the peril of the defaulter. "The Estates of Parliament," so runs the preamble, "considering how prejudicial the want of schooles in manie congregations hath been, and how beneficiall the founding thereof in everie congregation will be to this kirk and kingdom, Doe thairfore statute and ordane, That there be a school founded, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parochie not already provydit, by advise of the Presbitrie." The act goes on, in equally pointed language, to direct that the heritors of every parish meet and provide a proper schoolhouse, and modify a stipend for the schoolmaster, of not less than 100 merks, nor above 200—to be paid yearly at two terms—to meet which expense, they are to lay a proportional stent upon every one's rent, of stock and teind in the parish, the stipend to be "by and attoure" the payments formerly made to schoolmasters as readers and session-clerks. If the heritors do not meet, or being met, cannot agree, then the "Presbitrie sall nominate twal honest men within the bounds of the Presbitrie, who sal have power to establish a school, modify a stipend for the schoolmaster, with the latitude before expressed, and set down a stent for payment thereof upon the heritors, whilk sall be as valide and effectual as if the samen had been done be the heritouris themselvis." The Act proceeds to appoint, that as the proportion of each stent would be but small, that if two terms' proportions run to the third unpaid, "then those that so fail in payment sall be lyable in the double of thair proportion than resting; and in the double of everie terme's proportion that sal be resting thereafter; ay, and quhill the schoolmaster be compleitlie payit, and that without anie defalcationie." It provides legal means to compel payment, in the shape of "letters of horning and all other executorialis . . . discharging . . . anie suspensione to pas against the schoolmaster, without consignation." It directs that life-renters be liable; and finally, that if any one felt himself aggrieved, it should be "lawfull for them to seik redress thairof before the Lordis of Secret Counsall or Session, within yeir and day after the imposing of the stent, and no otherwise."

We have been thus minute in giving the provisions of this Act of 1646, as it is the foundation of our present parochial system; for, though this, as well as many other enlightened and liberal measures, passed during the so-called rebellion, were at one sweep repealed upon the restoration of the Stuarts to the throne, yet, so well had this educational act wrought, and so satisfied was the nation of its value, that it was re-enacted, with one or two unimportant changes, in 1696, and

continued the law of the land till 1803, when the Act under which the duties and emoluments of parochial schoolmasters were defined and settled

for half a century afterwards, was placed upon the statute-book.

Correspondence.

UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

SIR.—To a paper in the September number of the *Museum*, containing some strictures on the Entrance Examination to the University of Edinburgh under the new ordinance conferring the three years' privilege, I have to reply,—

(1) That I shall feel very much obliged to any person who will take this examination altogether off my hands.

(2.) That I consider a knowledge of elementary Greek syntax best tested by the capacity to translate short and easy sentences involving some peculiar Greek construction; and that I do not consider a boy knows syntax at all who only knows rules about syntax which he cannot put in practice.

(3.) If students who cannot pass the examination for the three years' privilege, are nevertheless allowed to enter the senior class provided they attend it for two years, I presume this interpretation was put on the ordinance in favour of a certain class of students who may be either somewhat too advanced for the first class, or to whom the hours of the second class are more convenient. Those who are acquainted with the peculiar circumstances of many Scotch students will not be inclined to judge this matter severely.

(4.) As a matter of fact, however, the great majority of the students not entitled to the privilege do enter the first class, as is proved by the increase in numbers of that class since the ordinance was issued.

(5.) I believe on the whole the ordinance is working admirably, for it raises the standard of both classes by at once forcing into the junior class students of higher attainments, and purging the second class of those unfit to benefit by its course of study.

JOHN S. BLACKIE, Prof. of Greek.

SCOTCH BURGH SCHOOLS.*

MY DEAR SIR,—Many thanks for your excellent article in the *Museum* on the Perth Schools. It is well calculated to produce a beneficial effect. I am very sceptical, however, about moral philosophy, in the proper sense of the term, having ever been taught in Perth. My assistant, who is a very able

This letter was addressed to Professor Lorimer in reference to the article in our last Number on the "Burgh Schools of Scotland Half a Century ago."

and accomplished scholar, teaches the outlines of logic and composition, which is, as I believe, all that ever was taught in the Perth Academy.

The programme of our course is also as extensive as ever it was, and I still teach the differential calculus (fluxions) to those who remain with me for a third session, but I am never able to get more than one or two to do so. Nor is this to be wondered at, since some of our Scotch universities (St Andrews) do not now proceed so far. This is very different from what took place thirty years ago; for then the third or highest mathematical class, in St Andrews, mustered about thirty, was taught five days a-week, and went over an extensive course of the differential and integral calculus; a course sufficient to prepare the student for reading such works as those of Poisson, Lagrange, and Laplace. That class now amounts to only some half dozen, meets for only three hours a week, and never reaches the above subjects at all.

The causes of the present depression of such schools as the Perth Academy, or seminaries, are, in my opinion, the following:—

(1.) The pecuniary difficulties of most of our Scotch burghs.

(2.) The low franchise preventing competent patrons getting into our Town Councils.

(3.) The university courses being of such an elementary nature.

(4.) The university local examinations requiring for a certificate of merit only a knowledge of two or perhaps three books of Euclid, not above one-fifth part of my course.

(5.) The competitive examinations for public appointments, where the humblest elements alone are required, and where a *cram* supersedes everything like mental training.

As you very kindly mention in your letter of the 7th inst. the names of the first Earl of Mansfield and Professor Adam Ferguson as having attended the Perth schools, perhaps you will pardon me for adding those of the Admirable Crichton, Professor Hamilton of Aberdeen, author of "An Inquiry into the Rise and Progress, the Redemption, and Present State of Management of the National Debt," &c. &c.; Professor Wallace of Edinburgh, Professor Ritchie of London, Dr Gordon of the Free High Church, Edinburgh, Dr Forbes, Glasgow, and your late amiable and accomplished preceptor Dr Anderson. All the above, and many hundreds more of eminent

men were connected, either as pupils or teachers, with the Perth schools; and, notwithstanding, from the causes above enumerated, if Government does not soon interfere, the higher branches will soon cease to be taught in an institution which has been of such eminent service not only to Scotland, but to the whole empire.—I have the honour to be, my dear Sir, yours respectfully,

THOMAS MILLER.

Professor Loximer, &c. &c.

SIR,—My attention has been drawn to an article in the *Museum* of October, entitled, "Burgh Schools Half a Century Ago," in which the condition of the Grammar School of Perth is especially commented on.

There is no doubt too much truth in many of its statements, in reference to the present low condition of classical education in the country generally, and not less so, by contrast, in this district. But I must say that, if the learned Professor who penned the article—with the kindest and best intentions—had been furnished with fuller information regarding the relative position of the academy and grammar school, some of the statements would have assumed a somewhat different aspect.

Long ago, when few rival institutions existed in the country, there were in the Grammar School two doctors or assistants associated with the rector. Subsequently, as with the Academy, the number was

reduced to one. On my appointment some eighteen years ago, the patrons resolved not to appoint a salaried assistant at all. This, I believe, arose partly from the growing financial difficulties of the burgh, and partly, I fear, from indifference to the cause of education. Had the mathematical rector been appointed at the same time, or subsequently, he would have had none either. He was fortunate enough, from priority of appointment, to secure a salaried assistant, so appointed that subsequent attempts on the part of the patrons to cancel it have failed.

From this circumstance alone arises the fact of there being a salaried assistant in the mathematical and none in the classical department. In two appointments more recent than my own, the masters have no salary at all, the legality of which is both questionable and questioned. So much for the liberality of our patrons.

For a great many years the pupils attending the Grammar School, have considerably out-numbered those of the Academy, so that the classical has not succumbed to the mathematical. During this session the number of the classical pupils has largely increased. The constitution of our seminaries is such that no rector or master can claim a superiority, either nominally or practically, and no such assumption is acknowledged in the institution.

WM. D. STEELE.

Grammar School, Perth.

Notices of Books.

Discours d'Isocrate sur lui même, intitulé sur l'Antidosis, traduit du Français pour la première fois par Auguste Cartelier, non éd. public avec le texte, une introduction ed du notes. Par ERNEST HAVET. 8vo. Paris (Imprimerie Impériale) chez Durand.

In a recent article of Mr Matthew Arnold, a very flattering, and, we will venture to say, a very merited compliment is paid to the French renderings of the Greek and Latin classics which have been lately issued. M. Nisard's *Bibliothèque Latine Française* is the one particularly referred to by the journalist; but his observation might be applied to other works of the same character, and we would take this opportunity of drawing the attention of our readers to a volume which, even if considered by itself, will certainly justify the eulogy passed by Mr Arnold on French translations.

The discourse of Isocrates, ΠΕΡΙ ΤΗΣ ΑΝΤΙΔΟΣΕΩΣ, had never yet been completely rendered into French when the late M. Auguste Cartelier, professor at the Lycée Napoleon in Paris, undertook

the task. The text itself, till the year 1812, was known only in a mutilated form, and to M. Mustoxidi the honour had accrued of publishing it in *extenso*. M. Cartelier unfortunately died without being able to see the result of his labours, and it was reserved for a friend of his, M. Ernest Havet, already known by valuable contributions to classical and modern literature, to superintend the publication of the work in question. Never, we may boldly affirm, has a more sumptuous monument been raised by private affection and public gratitude to the memory of a good man. The imperial printing-press was most liberally placed at the editor's disposal, and the result is now before us in the shape of an admirable specimen of typography, giving us the text of Isocrates, M. Cartelier's translation, some notes, a critical introduction, and an excellent biographical memoir of the author. Of this last named piece we shall not here say anything further, but we cannot help making an extract from one of M. Cartelier's letters, because it bears upon a question which is now every where à l'ordre du jour. Thirty years ago

the great hobby of French educationists was, as it is at present amongst us, to crowd the scholastic programmes with an immense variety of subjects, thus necessarily curtailing the course of classical studies properly so called, and stamping the instruction given in the colleges with an almost *de omnibus rebus* character. Against this mania, M. Cartelier pronounces most decidedly. "Some persons," M. Havet remarks, "flattered themselves that, by heaping lessons upon lessons, they would find the means of losing no time; as for him, he entertained no such hope; he saw things so closely that he was not taken in by any vain illusions. He thus wrote: "Could we not organise a system of instructions in which the several branches of study would be respectively grappled with by various categories of pupils. . . . We must think of it seriously; the time has perhaps come when, instead of overburdening boys, it would be better, on the contrary, to relieve them from part of the load which weighs down upon them; otherwise they will either lie down on the ground and refuse to walk, or they will throw off the whole baggage; it is better that we should ease them ourselves."

We shall now turn to M. Havet's introduction. It comprises two parts, the former being an appreciation of Isocrates, taken from a general point of view, and the latter having a special reference to the *ἀντιδοσις*. Isocrates, according to M. Havet, is a mere *λογοδιδάσκαλος*, but the first of all. In considering him, we must discuss both his moral character and the outward manifestations of such a character—that is to say, the written evidence of it which the orator's speeches were intended to convey. Isocrates was a lecturer on ethics. He belonged to that class of people "whom we call wise, moderate, honest men, I mean those who really deserve such a name. Worthy of esteem and of good will, they generally command both affection and respect, and can even aspire to something higher, but only on condition that they will add to their useful or amiable qualities, a virtue or a piquancy which these qualities do not always imply. Otherwise they fail to bring about all the good which they seem calculated to do; they disgust us with what is bad rather than cure us of it; they render us rather reasonable than good and strong; they do honour to themselves rather than being useful to their country."—(P. xx.)

The qualities of the style are only the expression of a man's moral idiosyncrasy. Accordingly, if we examine the merits of Isocrates as a writer, we shall find that he possessed just those merits of elegance and of classical purity which attract and charm us for a moment, but leave no lasting impression behind. "It is the same with the delicacy, the *finesse*, the elegance, the distinction, the dignity of the discourse as with the moral qualities of which they are the image; we like them, we honour them, we even admire them if they are developed far

enough; they place a writer above the vulgar. They are rare gifts; but yet they do not carry us away in the same manner as a certain energy of mind or of genius which penetrates us, and to which we cannot resist."—(P. xxi.)

After thus assigning to Isocrates his proper position as a man and as a writer, M. Havet goes on to shew what claims he had to be called a philosopher. At that time the Socratic school formed in Athens not merely a party, but almost a church, for the death of the master had raised it to this position. It had a faith and a form of worship. On points of religion, of ethics, of politics, the Socratic philosophers were, generally speaking, animated by a common spirit. Their belief was more *reasoned* than that of the multitude, their morals were more severe. As far as the views of government were concerned, their ideas were also opposed to those of the majority. Isocrates thought like Plato, like Xenophon, like Socrates; but the mission of Isocrates was to expound, in the language of society, part of those doctrines which Socrates and his immediate followers taught to the disciples who learned philosophy under their direction.

When he has explained, in a very ingenious and lucid manner, the services which the school of Socrates rendered to Athens, and the reasons why it could not save the freedom of Greece, M. Havet returns to an appreciation of Isocrates. With his usual prudence, the orator did not attack the national religion of his fellow-citizens; but he took great liberties on the political ground, and inveighed strongly against the fickleness of the multitude. "He cannot especially endure the power which the people leave in the hands of the most imprudent, violent, and abandoned characters,—characters who pass for being democrats, because, in the wicked deeds which they commit, they uniformly shield themselves under the name of the multitude, and because, together with the epithet 'aristocrat,' they cast upon the honourable adversary who endeavours to oppose them an amount of unpopularity under which they crush him. These are lessons from which the governments practising democracy on the largest scale will always be able to profit, even amongst the most civilized nations, and in the most enlightened times. He is unceasing in his denunciations of *sympophants*, as were then called at Athens the wicked informers who gave citizens as a prey to citizens, casting chiefly as victims to public passions those whose reason or virtue they most dreaded. Equally impartial in his accusations and in his praise, Isocrates hurls against the *sympophants* accusations almost as strong as their own objections."—(P. xlii.)

The government of the multitude is evidently contrary to the deepest feelings of the orator, and instead of it he proposes an aristocratic rule: selected, it is true, from the nation, and finally

judged by it. Such an administration would combine the various qualities of experience, learning, and wealth. He has thus, he thinks, realised a compromise between absolute democracy, of which he has energetically pointed out the defects, and royalty, with which he has no sympathy, although certain individual kings obtain his esteem and even inspire his affection.

We cannot follow M. Havet in his discussions of the relative merits of Isocrates and Demosthenes. The whole of that critique is extremely interesting (xlviii-lxi), from the connection it has with the political history both of Athens and of Greece in general; we refer the reader to it as to a masterly piece of composition. Time will even scarcely permit us to do more than allude to the concluding pages of M. Havet's first part, in which he examines the influence of Isocrates as a writer and rhetorician. Cicero amongst the Latins was the most brilliant specimen of the school, and, if we come to France we immediately are reminded of Balzac. Talking of that author's *Socrate Chrétien*, M. Sainte Beuve marked one day that the expression, "*Isocrate Chrétien*" would be far more appropriate: and certainly, as M. Havet observes, in every respect the author of the *ἄντιδοσις*, and Balzac are counterparts of one another.

In his second part, M. Havet gives us a detailed account of the *ἄντιδοσις*, and of all the questions critical, historical, and literary, which refer to it. We may consider it as a fictitious composition, originating from a lawsuit instituted against Isocrates, but not necessarily referring to it. "It is an apology of Isocrates, written by himself, and presented as the answer to a criminal accusation of an imaginary nature. The French commentator shews how ancient biographers have fallen into a mistake respecting the *ἄντιδοσις*, by supposing that Isocrates had to defend himself in two trials, the former against Megacides, which he had won, the latter, which he lost, against Lysimachus. The discourse we are now reviewing shews no trace of this twofold juridical episode, Lysimachus appearing in the *ἄντιδοσις* merely as the supposed opponent whose attacks Isocrates is led to refute.

The critical particulars bearing upon the speech are given in the following passage, which we borrow from M. Havet: "The greater portion of the MSS. contain only a little more than one-third of the discourse. After the words *τὴν αὐτοῦ διάνοιαν ἀπέχου*, which precede almost immediately the quotation of a fragment from the discourse to Nicocles, they pass on to the conclusion *πολλὸν ὀφεισάτων μοι λόγων*. M. Auger at last had suspected here an omission, but Coraï took no notice of it, a circumstance which has never been accounted for. When he read in Photius that the discourse *ἐπὶ τῆς ἀντιδόσεως* is the longest of all those of Isocrates, he did not feel disconcerted by

such a statement, but merely added by way of a note: 'Sans doute parmi les discours du genre judiciaire, car autrement le plus étendu est le *Panathénaique*.' Finally, a Greek gentleman, M. Mustoxidii discovered the complete text of the discourse in two MSS., the one preserved at Milan, the other belonging to the public library of Florence. Subsequently it was also found in two of the Vatican codices. M. Mustoxidii printed in 1812, at Milan, the first real edition of the *ἀντιδοσις*; an anonymous Latin translation (by Angelo Mai) appeared in the same city the following year, accompanied by very useful notes. Orelli gave a second edition of the Greek text at Zurich in 1814, and since that epoch the speech has been included in all the reprints of Isocrates's works."

Respecting the volume with which the names of Messrs Cartelier and Havet are jointly and inseparably connected, we shall just say, in finishing this imperfect review, that it deserves to be specially mentioned as a monument of contemporary French scholarship. The notes placed at the end are sufficient and uniformly to the point, the translation combines accuracy with elegance, and the introduction justifies amply what a distinguished critic, M. Emile Egger, says of M. Havet, "He has written too rarely, but he has seldom written anything but excellent pages."

Psychologie. Die Lehre vom bewussten Geiste des Menschen, oder Entwicklungs-geschichte des Bewusstseins, begründet auf Anthropologie und innerer Erfahrung. VON IMMANUEL HERMANN FICHTE. Leipzig. 1864. (Psychology. The Doctrine of the conscious spirit of Man, or the history of the development of the Consciousness, based on Anthropology and internal experience. By IMMANUEL HERMANN FICHTE. Leipzig. 1864.)

No one can have a clear notion of the theory of education, who has not devoted much of his time to the study of psychology. In fact, the study of the laws of education is simply the study of the normal processes of the soul's action in the first stages of its progress. And we affirm with confidence that, the greater the advance which takes place in rendering psychology purely scientific, the greater will be the certainty relating to the principles on which education is to be carried out.

Among those who, in the present day, devote themselves to investigations into the laws of mental development, Immanuel Hermann Fichte holds a foremost place. Some of his speculations are already known to our readers through the translation of one of his books by Mr Morell. The present publication will be deemed a very valuable contribution. The portion of it now presented to the public contains the general theory of consciousness, the doctrine of sensuous perception, of memory and

imagination. Mr Fichte had published previously a work on Anthropologie, which he intended as an introduction to the present. In the preface of his *Psychologie*, he gives an abstract of the anthropological conclusions to which he had come. Many of the propositions are startling enough, and we differ very widely from him in many points. But we do not wish to discuss them now, but to acknowledge the hearty debt of gratitude which scientific educationists owe him. We may take some future opportunity of bringing those of his doctrines which bear on the art of teaching before our readers. In the mean time, we earnestly urge those teachers who know German, and are fond of psychological studies, to procure and study the book.

The Bible in the Church. A popular account of the collection and reception of the Holy Scriptures in the Christian Churches. By BROOKE FOSS WESTCOTT, M.A., formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, author of "Introduction to the Study of the Gospels." &c. London and Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. 1864.

If we were to arrange English scholars of the present day according to their order of merit, we should place Mr Westcott in a small select class of the highest order; and we should doubt much whether we were not right in placing him first in that class. The select class would be composed of those who, by independent first-hand research, and by an adequate knowledge of what continental scholarship is doing, bring out new truths or old truths in new relations. Unfortunately the number of these independent first-hand investigators into the history and thoughts of antiquity are few in this country, and, therefore, all the more credit is due to Mr Westcott. We look upon his work on "The History of the Canon of the New Testament" as by far the best book on the subject in our language; Lardner's object being different, and the advance of scholarship since his day being great; and we set it down as the most substantial piece of patristic scholarship which has been accomplished in England this century. We say this, too, with the treatises of Butler, Bishop Kaye, Beaven, and Harvey's edition of Irenæus in our mind. The present little work is a kind of abstract of the larger work, but contains more. It is a popular history of the Bible in the Church, written by one who is thoroughly master of his subject. It is sound, liberal, and remarkably fair. We differ with Mr Westcott in many opinions, but we always respect him. This is not the place to mention these differences, but we cannot help saying a word in defence of Volkmar, the editor of Credner's posthumous work. Volkmar has shewn himself a man of very considerable power in his various treatises, especially that on Marcion's Gospel; and we think Mr Westcott has dealt hardly with him.

Our Material; or, What is a Child? A Lecture delivered before the members of the Sunday School Union Training Class. By WILLIAM H. GROSER, B.Sc., F.G.S., of the Sunday School Union Committee, author of "Illustrative Teaching," "Bible Months," "The Introductory Class," &c. London: Sunday School Union, 56 Old Bailey, E.C. 1864.

This is an admirable lecture, characterised by sound sense, by a deep interest in teaching and children, by extensive reading, and by a thorough mastery of the subject which is discussed. The price of it is only fourpence; and we can assure our readers that they will not repent of spending that sum on it. It was delivered, as the title states, to Sunday-school teachers; and it would be well if a copy of it were placed in the hands of every one who engages in Sunday-school teaching. But its sound exposition of what children are, and how they should be treated will be of great advantage to all teachers who have not reflected much on the matter, and will be pleasant reading for those who have.

We extract, as specimens of the lecture, two or three paragraphs. The first is on attention:—

"The facts seem to be these:—1. The attention of children is not much under the control of the will, but depends upon the interest which they feel in the subject. From this it follows that, as a rule, the attention of our younger scholars is not to be secured by begging, or scolding, or reasoning, or expostulation, but by presenting that which will interest them. Other methods may enforce quietude, but nothing else will gain attention.

"2. A child's attention cannot long be kept up by one object. The rattle or drum is soon exhausted of its interest, and cast aside, to the unreasonable annoyance of the donors. The box of bricks, or the doll's house, affords much longer enjoyment; while Punch or cricket is 'a thing of beauty and a joy for ever.' Hence we must beware of monotony in our instructions. 'Here a little, and there a little,' must be our motto; and the 'little' here must be as different as possible from the 'little' there. And the younger the children, and the feeblér their power of sustaining the attention, the greater the variety of subject and manner required in teaching them."

Mr Groser lays out his lecture according to the various stages of development through which a child passes. The first stage of a child's intellectual history he calls, as is usually done, the age of perception: then he describes the age of conception or imagination; and finally, he discusses the age of reason, judgment, or reflection. He then passes from the intellect to the emotions, classifying them according to the divisions given in Professor Bain's work on the subject, such as the emotion of pursuit, the emotion of wonder, the love of power, the love of communicating, and the love of society. Mr Groser then proceeds to shew the stages of development in

the emotional nature. He introduces the first as follows:—

"We are often reminded that laughing, crying, gaping, and yawning are 'contagious.' In young children, *all* the feelings are contagious. The medal is not more truly correspondent to the die, than the emotions of a child to the emotions of those by whom it is constantly surrounded. Irritation in the parent produces irritation in the child; sourness in the teacher begets acidity in the pupil; rudeness in the scholar leads to rudeness in his schoolfellows. This correspondence is most marked and unrestricted in younger children, for reason has then no power to modify or correct it. Hence the first period of moral development is called the AGE OF SYMPATHY. The word is used in its literal sense—the child and teacher 'feel together.' Feeling awakens corresponding feeling. Our duty, then, is obvious to the understanding, though to carry it out may be far from easy. We must cultivate the moral nature by *example* and by *training*."

The next stage he calls the age of approbation, and the final one, the age of conscience. His remarks under this head, on the development of the social instincts, well deserve the consideration of parents and teachers:—

"The love of society now assumes a definite form, and one productive of much solicitude, if not perplexity to the watchful teacher. The scholars begin to form associations with those of the opposite sex, while other associations present themselves outside the Sabbath circle; and as the passions likewise begin to increase in strength, it is impossible not to anticipate with anxiety the approach of what has fitly been termed 'the crisis of being.' In dealing with these delicate and difficult matters, it appears to me extremely unwise to separate the sexes by curtains, partitions, and other material barriers. Concealment invites curiosity, as observation and experience universally testify. Nor is the other extreme more prudent. What can be more unwise than, having assembled a number of boys and girls on a winter evening, to keep them until a late hour, and then turn them promiscuously, and without supervision, into the streets of a large town, to see and hear that which cannot but prove morally injurious and provocative of sin? It seems desirable to allow elder scholars free and unrestricted intercourse within the walls of the school, letting them meet there, and endeavouring to make them regard it as a second home, rather than seek other places of resort elsewhere. That they should form connections with their fellow-scholars is not in itself an evil, but the contrary;—where are more suitable associations likely to be found? The mischief lies in affording facilities for boy and girl companionship apart from the exercise of any care or control. Much good might also, I think, be accomplished if the subject were more frequently alluded to in class instruction, in place of the reserve usually maintained

by teachers. A little timely and judicious counsel might prevent many a sad mistake, and perhaps many an act of immorality."

Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid. By Professor C. PIAZZI SMYTH, F.R.S.S. L. & E., Astronomer-Royal for Scotland. With photograph, map, and plates. London: Alexander Strahan & Co. 1864.

This is a very remarkable book, well deserving the attention of those interested in the history of science. Professor Smyth, following in the steps of Mr Taylor, fancies he has discovered the uses for which the Great Pyramid was made. He may be right or he may be wrong in this. We shall not attempt at present to decide. His theory is based on a great number of measurements, none of which has been made by himself. To one who has not studied the subject so minutely as himself, he seems occasionally to deal with his numbers in an arbitrary way, and the reader's distrust of Professor Smyth's statements is increased by the keen partisan feeling which pervades the book. At the same time, our feeling is exactly that expressed by Lord Neaves, at a meeting of the Royal Society in Edinburgh:—"If these things are only coincidences, they are most extraordinary coincidences; but if they are facts, that is, if the material proportions indicated were designedly and purposely established, they form the most remarkable discovery of the age."

The nature of the discoveries which Professor Smyth maintains he has made will be best learned from the summary which he gives of them in the last chapter:—

"1. The Great Pyramid, a pre-historic and entirely pre-Mosaic monument, had remained sealed in all its more important divisions, from the date of its foundation, up to an advanced period of the Christian dispensation, and was then found, on being opened and examined, entirely free from that accursed thing which formed the leprosy of the East in ancient days—idolatry.

"2. The simple proportions of the almost mountainous sides and base of the pyramid have been found to contain a solution of one of the most radical propositions in pure mathematics, and of *constant recurrence in high metrology*,—solved, moreover, to a greater degree of accuracy than the progress of science had arrived at, after a period of two thousand years, in the hands of the intellectual Greeks, and even during the meteor-like blaze of their chief geometrical genius, Archimedes.

"3. The linear measure of the base of this colossal monument, viewed in the light of the philosophical connection between time and space, has yielded a standard measure of length, which is more admirably and learnedly earth-commensurable than anything which has ever yet entered into the mind of man to conceive, even up to the last discovery in modern

metrological science, whether in England, France, or Germany.

"4. The height and area of the base of the pyramid have shewn residual features in the figure of the earth, whose existence has only recently been detected by high mathematicians; and the pyramid results, though not yet fully interpreted, compete in numerical accuracy with those derived from the best combinations of the longest trigonometrical surveys, which have been carried on in recent years, in various parts of the earth.

"5. The pyramid standard for linear measure, after furnishing notable help to astronomers, surveyors, and working-men, leads without a break or flaw, or any extraneous addition, to standard measures for capacity and weight, which are also commensurable with, or figurative of, the earth in its appropriate qualities to these purposes, and with a completeness of symbolisation never witnessed before.

"6. The subject of temperature, and its various effects in disturbing metrological systems, is disposed of in the only manner which is likely ever to be considered perfectly satisfactory; and it is in the direction towards which modern science has been tending for many years past, but has been accomplished at the pyramid with a thoroughness and a success vastly beyond anything which has yet been attempted by the most scientific of the nations of Europe.

"7. And finally, though finally only as the last subject we have space to mention under this head, the material of standard measures, a matter in which modern science has been stumbling without knowledge several times during the present century, is treated in a manner to last for ages, and to bring into useful employment the chief discovery of the youngest of all natural sciences, viz., the long ages of geology."

Professor Smyth has a well-earned scientific reputation; and it is a great pity that in this work he did not confine himself to purely scientific investigations and conclusions. Unfortunately for the book itself, and for the reader's trust in it, Professor Smyth has tried to shew that the pyramid is a work of inspiration, that those who built it, built it under Divine direction; and that it was intended to direct the metrology of all future ages, or in his own words, "to serve as the centre of metrology for the civilised world!" His reasons for this opinion are of the weakest character; and, in fact, he does not seem to understand by what kind of evidence such a fact could be established. His interpretation of Scripture is also extremely fanciful. Indeed, this portion of his work creates a strong feeling of doubt whether Professor Smyth has not been deluding himself even with his figures. We are glad to hear that he intends to visit Egypt, and measure the pyramid himself. In any country but our own, Government would supply him with ample funds for such a purpose. We trust some of our scientific societies may furnish him with aid.

The Elements of Logic. By THOMAS SHEDDEN, M.A., St Peter's College, Cambridge. London: Longman, Green, Longman, Roberts, & Green. 1864.

Mr Shedden states in his preface that it was "written with the view of giving the student, in a connected form, a scheme of logic which, while it comprises the most useful portions of the Aristotelian or ancient logic, combines with them the views of modern writers of authority on the subject. Its aim is to assist, not to supersede, more extended studies in the closet or the lecture-room."

It is very difficult to see what special reason Mr Shedden had for writing a new treatise on logic, for some of the treatises that exist just do what he professes he has aimed at doing. The work, however, may be useful. If a student has carefully studied Hamilton and Mill, and has dipped into Bacon, he will find in Mr Shedden's book a *résumé* of those special portions which he would mark as likely to be the subject of examination. Mr Shedden's chapters sometimes consist almost of nothing else than a list of the divisions which logicians have made of portions of their subjects. The chapter on names, for instance, is very much of this nature. Occasionally, however, the monotony is diversified by a strongly expressed opinion on the part of Mr Shedden; and, strange to say, the persons whom he attacks are Sir William Hamilton, Mr Mill, and the Archbishop of York, to the last of whom he dedicates his book. In all the instances in which Mr Shedden has made his meaning intelligible, we think he is wrong in his endeavours to undermine established authorities. He shews himself lamentably ignorant of the present state of psychological science. Thus, he says that "the study of the faculties of the human mind is elaborate and extensive; and it is, besides, serviceable not to logic only, but to other departments of mental philosophy, so that it deservedly arrogates to itself the position of a separate science, under the name of pure metaphysics or psychology."

Psychology has unfortunately been sometimes called metaphysics. We have never seen it called pure metaphysics; and if it has been so called by any one before Mr Shedden, it is an exceedingly improper use of the term pure. Sir William Hamilton, whom Mr Shedden might have consulted on this point, separates psychology, or the science of the phenomena of mind, from metaphysics proper or ontology.

In the few pages after this, Mr Shedden dogmatically states that "the only direct sources of human knowledge are the perceptions of our bodily sensations, coupled with certain innate ideas, as that of our own existence; all other knowledge is inferred from these as premises."

What Mr Shedden means by sources, he does not inform us, but how a perception can be a source of knowledge we do not see, for a perception is knowledge itself. Then, again, Mr Shedden does not in-

form us what he means by innate ideas ; but we are left to imagine, from his words, that he supposes that the child at its birth has some ideas in him, such as the most general of all, that of existence. And then, if all knowledge is inferred from our perceptions of bodily sensations, coupled with certain innate ideas, from the perception of what bodily sensation, coupled with what innate idea, does Tom know that he loves Susan ? These are specimens of loosely put together sentences which stud this book on logic.

European History, in a series of Biographies, from the beginning of the Christian Era till the present time. By DAVID PRYDE, M.A. Edinburgh: W. P. Nimmo. 1864.

Mr Pryde's book is well written, and interesting ; and we should have been inclined to give him great praise, had he supplied a want. But we cannot see why he should have written the book at all. The present reviewer has used in his class for several years an admirable Text-Book of European History, Dr Collier's "Great Events of History, from the beginning of the Christian Era till the Present Time." This book goes over exactly the same field as Mr Pryde's, and Mr Pryde has adopted its division of European History into eight periods without a word of acknowledgment. It is not so purely biographical as his, but it is to a great extent biographical. It is as pictorial and as interesting. Indeed, it is more interesting, for the pictures of the manners of the various periods help the pupils to realise the men of those times. And it gives the pupil greater help in the way of literary, chronological, and geographical tables. We cannot perceive one advantage which we should gain by substituting Mr Pryde's book for Dr Collier's, and we are certain that we should lose some.

Both books would improve their usefulness by giving a short list of the best historical works on the different periods. And both might be occasionally more careful in stating fact as fact, and conjecture as conjecture. We should like to know, for instance, where Mr Pryde was informed that Polycarp was ninety years of age at his martyrdom, and why he fixed on the year 167 as the date of that event. We might put such queries in great numbers, but we must not be too critical in dealing with abstracts of European History.

French Studies, comprehending Graduated Conversations upon the Ordinary Topics of Life, Colloquial Exercises to be done at Sight, Select Extracts from Standard Writers, and a Dictionary of 10,000 Words, and Numerous Idioms. By ALFRED HAVET, author of "The Complete French Class-Book," &c. London: W. Allan & Co.; Simpkin & Co.; Longman & Co.; Dulau & Co. Fifth edition.

The great difficulty in teaching any foreign language is to combine constant repetition with constant

interest, and we give Mr Havet the credit of having conquered this difficulty in a singularly felicitous manner. We have first the conversation lesson, where the pupil hears the master read French, and then himself learns to speak French. Then we have the instantaneous exercise, where the pupil uses the words he has acquired in the previous lesson, in translating from English into French; and if he manages to translate well from English into French, his master replies to him in French, and thus he learns to understand spoken French. He is then introduced to a piece of classic French, after translating which he is to use the words acquired in it for conversational purposes. The student who goes through this manual carefully would be able to read most French books with ease, and to speak French on the usual conversational topics. It is one of the most cleverly planned books that have come within our knowledge.

The Pupil Teacher's and Student's Handbook of Scripture, containing everything requisite for Examination, an Analysis of each of the [Four Gospels, and of the Acts of the Apostles, the Historical Geography of all the principal places in the Holy Land alphabetically arranged; and five hundred and fifty questions on the Old and New Testament. The whole especially adapted to meet the requirements of Pupil Teachers under the shortened period of instruction laid down in the Revised Code. By GEORGE TURNER, Head Master of Queensberry (late Queen's Head) School, Halifax. London: Longman, Green, Longman, Roberts, and Green. 1864.

The title of this work indicates its purpose fully, and we have merely to state that it accomplishes what it professes. The questions are such as might be given at examination; and, when information is communicated, it is also probably such as would pass muster at examinations. We are sorry to say, however, that the book does not display great knowledge of the present state of biblical criticism; and that consequently it states as facts what are mere conjectures, and utterly unauthenticated late traditions, if they can be called traditions at all. Thus he informs us that St Matthew's Hebrew Gospel was "translated into Greek by one of the disciples;" that St Mark's Gospel, "having been approved by Peter, was publicly read in the assemblies at Rome;" that St Luke "was a native of Antioch;" and we are positively informed that St John wrote the Book of Revelation in the Isle of Patmos, whither he had been banished by Domitian. We have also several particulars of the lives of the apostles, unknown to veritable history. We commend to all who use this handy Handbook a careful study of the work of Mr Westcott, reviewed in this number of *The Museum*, or of his larger work, or better still, of both.

School Geography. By JAMES CLYDE, LL.D., one of the Classical Masters in the Edinburgh Academy. Eighth edition, revised and corrected throughout. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1864.

Elementary Geography. By JAMES CLYDE, LL.D. Ninth edition, revised and corrected throughout. 1864.

These school-books have attained great and well-merited success. They are both exceedingly well adapted for the pupils for whom they are designed, and the information given is communicated in an interesting and lucid manner. Dr Clyde enunciates in the preface to his larger work a proposition to which we must give an emphatic denial. He says, "To teach what has no fair chance of being remembered is worse than useless." On the contrary, we hold that it is often absolutely necessary to teach a great deal which is advantageously forgotten, and this is especially the case in geography. By going over the particularities of a country very minutely, a distinct idea of the country is formed in the pupil's mind; and after all, or almost all, the particulars have, in the lapse of time, vanished from his mind, so far at least as that he cannot recall them at pleasure, the impression still remains, and can serve him as a guide in consulting books of reference, or even in the practical pursuits of life.

A Practical Arithmetic for Elementary Schools. By JAMES CURRIE, A.M. Edinburgh: Thos. Laurie, Cockburn Street. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.; Hamilton, Adams, & Co.

Were we to judge from the number of books that have appeared, we should think that no subject ought to be so well and so generally known as arithmetic. Year after year shoals of text-books have their entrances into scholastic literature duly heralded, each separate treatise claiming to have some distinctive feature; to be peculiarly adapted to meet the requirements of this or that examination; or to supply "what has long been felt as a want in such books."

It is not a little remarkable that, out of so many and so well titled productions, not one has met with anything like that general acceptance which formerly, in schoolboy minds, rendered the names of *Cocker* and *Gray* synonymous with the science itself. But what is more remarkable, in the midst of such plenty there is still a want. We find a great many teachers, at a great expense of time and trouble, giving orally to their junior classes that knowledge of arithmetic suited to their years, which they look for in vain in text books. While we have now something like standard manuals in geography, grammar, and composition, scarcely anything worthy of the name has yet appeared in elementary arithmetic. The friends of elementary education will therefore hail with satisfaction the appearance in this field of

a man of such extensive experience and acquirements as Mr Currie, and will expect to find in his work that just combination of the philosophical and practical which is so characteristic of his other writings.

The book before us will not disappoint them. It is thoroughly practical. From the very commencement, the child will perceive a close connection between his class work, and the arithmetic which intercourse with his fellows compels him to acquire out of doors. Very great attention is given to notation and the simple rules, for reasons which we leave Mr Currie to explain:—

"An introductory text-book of arithmetic should not be a mere condensation of a higher one; it should devote the space which it gains from the omission of the more advanced rules to the ampler treatment of those which are fundamental. Where the arithmetic of a school is work at all, it is in these rules that the weakness almost invariably lies; and it is in these rules, according to the testimony of all competent authorities, that the most material improvement in the teaching of the subject is to be looked for."

It is in this department that the book differs most from its predecessors. It is simple in language, accurate in explanation, and very methodical; while the pupil's knowledge of what he learns is well tested and advanced by the excellent set of exercises appended to each section. Throughout, theory is taught by example. On entering a new rule, a question is first wrought out, and the working made intelligible to the pupils by an appeal to their previous knowledge, and to a few first principles. From this particular example, the general rule of working is then deduced. The miscellaneous exercises are very numerous, and are composed, chiefly, of questions taken from the Privy Council and Dick Bequest Examination papers.

Graduated Exercises in Arithmetic and Mensuration.

By the Rev. JAMES HARRIS, M.A. London: Longman, Green, & Co.,

Contains 2000 original examples, arranged in sets of exercises, graduated as to difficulty. This book is admirably adapted for examination purposes. The examples, besides being numerous, are varied and good—so good, that we are afraid Mr Harris will, in regard to this, as in his "Questions in Arithmetic," think himself entitled to complain of various examination papers being stocked with his examples. His books could not have a better recommendation.

Mathematical Exercises. By SAMUEL W. WINTER, F.R.A.S. London: Longman, Green, & Co.

A collection of 3500 examples in arithmetic and pure and mixed mathematics, taken from military, civil service, and other examination papers, in the hope that they will be very serviceable to students preparing for these and similar examinations. An-

swers are given to the questions, but no solutions, nor hints as to how these may be obtained. We cannot join in the author's hope; nor promise students more benefit from this book than they may derive, in half the time, from the ordinary manuals.

Progressive Exercises in Book-keeping by Double Entry.
By the Rev. JOHN HUNTER, M.A. London: Longman & Co.

Contains a numerous, varied, and well graduated set of exercises, intended to test the pupil's knowledge of what he has gone over. No explanation is therefore given. Mercantile transactions in every variety of form are presented to the book-keeper, and he

must know the subject well if he succeed in disposing of these as required.

The Essentials of Spelling: A Comprehensive Classification of the Difficulties of English Spelling, with Rules for Spelling, and Exercises thereon; adapted to the Revised Code Examinations, the Civil Service Examinations, and to schools generally. Third Edition, Revised and Enlarged. By E. JONES, B.A. London: F. Pitman, 20 Paternoster Row, E.C. Liverpool: Phillip, Son, and Nephew, South Castle Street.

This little work can be highly praised for the clearness of its method and its fulness of detail. It is also remarkably cheap. It may be had in parts.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

Last month I took the liberty of directing your attention to what appeared to me to be an error in the analysis given by "Essay" in the August Number. Permit me again to remark upon what I cannot but consider as an inaccuracy in his analysis of the lines from Byron's "Waterloo." He has assigned the phrase "*with the breath*," as an indirect object to the clause, "*which fills their mountain pipes*," whereas it is surely an *extensive* or *adverbial*

adjunct to the clause, "so fill the mountaineers," &c. Again, "Essay" has called (b) a simple sentence co-ord. adversative with (a), whereas it is an adjective sentence subordinate to (c). And, what is equally incorrect, he has denominated (c) a subord. adverbial sentence of manner, when it is really a principal sentence co-ordinate with (a).

I beg to submit to you an analysis of the passage in question which I consider to be more correct than that of "Essay":—

Compound Sentence. Complex Clause.		Clause.	Nature of Clause.	Connec- tive.	Subject.	Predi- cate.	Object.	Extension or Adverbial Adjunct.
	A.	How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills savage and shrill!	Principal; exclamatory.		That pibroch	thrills		1. in the noon of night (time). 2. savage and shrill (manner). 3. how (degree).
	B.	But, with the breath (b.) so fill the mountaineers with the fierce native daring (2b).	Principal; assertive adversatively co-ordinate with A.	But	the mountaineers	fill	with the fierce native daring (2b) (indirect)	1. with the breath, b. (accompany circumstances), 2. So (manner).
	b.	Which fills their mountain pipe	Subordinate; adjective to breath in B.		Which	fills	their mountain pipe.	
	2b.	Which instils the stirring memory of a thousand years.	Subordinate; adjective to daring in B.		Which	instils	the stirring memory of a thousand years.	

"Essay" begs to stand corrected to "C. L. F." with regard to the parenthetical clause "I never believed," analysed in August Number. It was an error which "Essay" is glad to acknowledge, having only noticed it as such after it had been sent to the press.

As to the noun clause, "That he could have committed which," "Essay" and "C. L. F." coincide exactly. It was not clearly expressed as such in print, but "Essay" wishes it distinctly understood that it was the whole complex sentence, "I never believed that he could have committed which," which was meant as subor. adj. to (a), and only the sentence, "that he could have committed which," which was sub. or. noun sent. to (c). (See "Essay's" analysis August Number.) Therefore it will be seen that "C. L. F." and "Essay" coincide in the last half of the former's criticism, for whose justice "Essay" begs to return thanks.

"ESSAY."

9. Relational clauses of manner are introduced by the adverbs *the*, *than*, and *as*. Generally they describe ideas involving qualities or bearing on the mode of the action, not actions themselves. The various shades of meaning conveyed by the idea of relation, according to Morell, are such as these:—

1. The subordinate may intensify the meaning of the principal clause, as "The more you learn, the more remains for you to learn" (= quo plus discis, es plus restat ut discas) where "the—the" = by how much—by so much = quo—eo.

2. The subordinate may bear a constant proportion to the principal clause, as "The higher the sun is the less is the arc."

3. The clauses may form an equality or inequality as (1), "His writing is such as (writing is that) I can praise" (2), "He writes better than I (write)." Here *as* and *than* refer to the mode of the writing; and in the construction of the sentences a comparison is drawn between degrees of writing as related to certain standards.

From the above it will be seen that in some instances the idea of *degree* preponderates; and there seems no reason why it should not have a separate classification as much as the ideas of *manner* or *cause*. In the sentence "He has not read so much as you have (read much)" where "so much—as much"—*tam multa—quam multa*, the relative adverb *as* refers not to the *manner*, but to the *extent* of the reading. This arrangement would perhaps better explain the anomalous sentences introduced by *as*, &c., while it would relieve any doubts as to the meaning of "Relation" (i. e., intensity, &c.).

QUENTIN.

20. I demur to the statement of your correspondent "Quentin," in the *Museum* for August, that the relative is in certain cases used for the personal pronoun, if his meaning be that the one is in any case

the precise equivalent of the other. It is true that in the passage to which he refers—

"To whom the arch-enemy,
And thence in heaven called Satan, with bold words
Breaking the horrid silence, thus began"—
we may substitute *him* for "whom," but by so doing we have lost something—an almost unexpected yet smooth, and therefore a pleasing, connection, which the poet manifestly designed, and we have got a jog if not a jolt in its place. The relative, as "Quentin's" own subsequent analysis shews, is not one part of speech, but two, being equivalent to "pronoun plus conjunction," and *plus* it." But, if so, it is not strictly accurate to say that the relative is used for the personal pronoun, since it expresses a personal or demonstrative pronoun, and something more. And this, it seems to me, is precisely what renders the poet's language so expressive as to render any defence of it unnecessary. Agreeing with "Quentin" as I do in this respect, I should scarcely write a the subject, but for its involving the general treatment of the relative pronoun and of some other words in the language, whose characteristic is to possess the capacities of two parts of speech at once. In the phrase, for instance, "By reading his book carefully," the word "reading" is governed as a noun by the preposition "by"—governs as a verb its object "his book"—and again as a verb is qualified by the adverb "carefully." To state the first clearly and sharply, the relative might be called the conjunction-pronoun," and the verbal substantive the "verb-noun." I am convinced, from some experience in teaching the analysis of sentences, that any system which denies or ignores the existence of such borderers between the generally broadly-marked classes of words called parts of speech, will be fruitful of confusion and self-contradiction.

ENSENADA.

24. The following is submitted as the probable explanation of the reading "Me rather had." Is not the word "me" an example of the old and not unfrequent use of the *Dative* case, which appears with such verbs as *list*, *ought*, *think*, *like*, and *seem*? Thus—

Me list not pleye.—Chaucer.

Wel ought us werke.—Id.

Him thought he sat in gold all cled.—Merlin.

His countenance likes me not.—Shakespeare.

So in the case in point, "that my heart might feel your love," is the subject to "had," and the whole might thus be rendered:—"To me rather had been that my heart might feel your love, than my unpleas'd eye see your courtesy."

If our critic extended his examination, he would remark many instances of grammatical irregularities in the poet less susceptible of defence than the above. To these, it is unwise, we think, to apply

the severest critical tests, for these reasons: that the *ideas* frequently override grammatical forms, that the close and accurate English of the poet's time "was the reflex of the Latin syntax," and that Shakespeare—a writer of pure Saxon—employing the colloquial language of his day, is thus often led to violate the laws of grammar as now understood.

We submit the following from the *Merchant of Venice* to "Beta" as worthy of note:—

"There *are* a sort of men."

"For *who* love I so much?"

"All debts are cleared between you and I."

QUENTIN.

QUERIES.

25. It has been said that "the only event in the history of the human species which admits of comparison with the propagation of Christianity, is the success of Mahomedanism. In what points does the parallel fail?"

TYRO.

26. Analyse—"The state of the world is such, and so much depends on action, that everything seems to say aloud to every man, 'Do something, do it, do it.'"

J. B. and OMEGA.

27. Analyse—"Flowers form one of the first delights of early age, and they have proved a source of recreation to the most profound philosophers."

OMEGA.

28. Analyse—"Gratitude consists in an equal return of benefits if we are able, of thanks if we are not; which thanks, therefore, must always rise in proportion as the benefits received are great, and the receiver incapable of making any other sort of requital."

OMEGA.

29. What important questions were raised (1st), by the illness of George III., (2d.) by the protracted trial of Warren Hastings?

WRIGHTLEY.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.

15. *Solution by Tyro*, (Kirriemuir).—Let $AB'CD'$ be a quadrilateral, and let it be divided into any two quadrilaterals by the line DB .

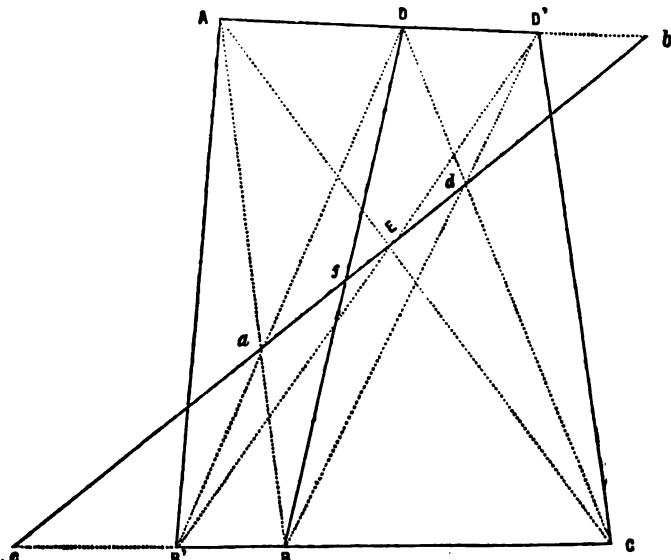
Through a and d , the intersections of the diagonals of the quadrilaterals $AB'DB$ and $DBCD'$, draw the line $cadb$, cutting in e the diagonal AC of the original quadrilateral $AB'CD'$. It remains to be proved that $B'D'$ will pass through e .

Now, since the sides AB , BC , CD , and AD of $ABCD$ are cut separately in a , c , d , b , and its diagonals AC , BD in e and f , by the line $cadb$, we have (by Colenso's Geometrical Problems, Book VI. 90), $ab, cf, de = cd, af, be$. (1)

For the same reason, in quadrilateral $DB'BD'$, supposing that $cadb$ cuts $B'D'$ in e , we have $ab, ce, df = cd, ae, bf$, which expression may readily be shewn to be equal to $ab, cf, de = cd, af, be$. (2.)

Hence from (1) and (2) $de : be :: d\delta' : b\delta'$. \therefore (dividends) $de : bd :: d\delta' : bd$, that is $d\delta' = de$, or δ coincidence with e .

17. *Solution by Carac*.—Let r = length of string, g = force of gravity, w = weight of stone, P = time of revolution, and T = tension of string.



$$\frac{T}{w} = \frac{4\pi^2}{P^2 g} \quad (\text{See Goodwin's Elem. Dynamics.})$$

but $w = 1$, and $P = 1$

$$\therefore T = \frac{4\pi^2}{g} = \frac{4 + 3.1416^2 + 8}{32.2} = 8 \text{ lbs. } 10\text{oz. } 371\text{grs.}$$

Solved also by *G. T. S., II. Parade*, and very fully by *H. C. and Cycloid* (Edin.), but their solutions came too late for insertion in this Number.

QUERIES.

18. *Proposed by Cycloid (Edin.)*.—The earth being an oblate spheroid, whose major and minor axes are as 230 to 229, find the latitude in which the difference between the true and reduced zeniths is a maximum.

19. *Solution requested by O. H.*—

$$\text{If } \tan x = x + \frac{a_2 x^2}{1^3} + \frac{a_3 x^3}{1^5} + \dots$$

$$\text{Shew that } a_{2n-1} = \frac{(2n+1)2n}{1.2} a_{2n-1} - \frac{(2n+1)2n(2n-1)(2n-2)}{1^4} a_{2n-3}$$

(Todhunter's Trigon. chap. xix., ex. 7).

20. *Solution requested by Cycloid*.—To bisect a triangle by a straight line from a given point without it.

Note.—Ar will find his proposition proved very neatly in Todhunter's *Analytical Statics*, and in Tait and Thomson's *Elem. Dynamics*.

Philos. will find his *third* query solved in Todhunter's *Trigonometry*, §90; the others should give him little trouble.

Open Council.

No paper can be allowed under any circumstances to exceed half a page in length. The names of the Writers must be sent to the Editor, not necessarily for publication.]

I. Respecting the presentation of children for examination, the words of the "Supplementary Rules" are sufficiently explicit:—"Rule V. The managers need not present *all the scholars* who in each class are *qualified for examination by number of attendances*." If this refers to all the classes of a Mixed School, it must also apply to any separate standard, and therefore to an Infant School.

II. The proposer has here, perhaps, struck upon one of the radical faults of the Code, where, on its very threshold, the teacher suffers from the early neglect of his charge, and the pupil runs the risk of enduring the "cramming" process: and his question is the complaining cry of a system, not so much unworkable, as mechanical in its details and uncertain in its results. But its articles must not be misinterpreted. The Code nowhere says that "100 days is enough" to *prepare* a neglected child, though

it may *qualify him by attendance*, for the demands of the First Standard. While rendering doubtful, however, the success of a previously neglected boy, the Code allows the usual chance of success to a well-trained boy, with a minimum of 200 attendances. Here extremes meet, but it would be invidious to say, either that this number is "enough" or too limited in certain cases to attain certain results; and as regards the subdivision of the prescribed work into 100 parts, we think there would be some difficulty in predetermining either the proportion of work or its relation to the time, since the 200 attendances of two boys may extend over very different times. Considered only, then, as a matter of expediency in a tentative measure, there is surely some degree of fairness in giving the full grant to a successful child with such a minimum.

QUENTIN.

Education at Home.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CONGRESS.

The recent meeting of the Social Science Association at York was in many respects remarkably successful. Hitherto the one great fault of the Association has been the desultoriness of its discussions, and its tendency to admit too many miscellaneous papers, and to discuss many topics hastily and superficially, rather than to exhaust a few. During the past year the council have adopted a rule which is designed to

correct this evil. They have determined to select in each of their four sections—of jurisprudence, education, health, and social economy,—three subjects of prominent importance, and to devote one day exclusively to each. Since there are five days available for discussion, this arrangement still leaves two days open for voluntary papers on miscellaneous topics, in all the departments. At the late meeting this plan was tried for the first time, and was found to give much greater unity and concentration to the

proceedings of the Association, and to produce very beneficial results.

The education section proved to be, on the whole the most popular of all the departments, and was very fully attended to the last. It was presided over by the Archbishop of York, the vice-presidents being Archdeacon Creyke, Canon Hey, the Rev. J. Kendrick, and Rev. E. Akroyd of Halifax. The local secretaries were the Rev. J. Lees of St Peter's School, the Rev. G. Rowe, Principal of the York Training College, and Mr J. G. Fitch, one of H.M. Inspectors of Schools.

The Address was delivered by the Archbishop of York. We had expected to be able to give this address in full, and it is now in type, but a press of matter compels us to defer it till next month.

The three subjects selected by the Council were the Public School Commission, the Smaller Endowed and Middle Class Schools, and the State of Popular Instruction in the Rural Districts.

On the first day the Rev. D. Melville read a paper which he had prepared at the request of the committee of the department on the Report of the Royal Commissioners on Public Schools. Mr Melville entered fully into the recommendations of the Commissioners on the finance, management, and instruction of public schools. With regard to the relation which should subsist between the head master and the governing body and the assistant masters, Mr Melville was at issue with the Commissioners, and was opposed to interference in matters connected with the subjects or methods of instruction. He thought the wisest policy would be to throw the whole responsibility on the head master, who should, in the first instance, be selected solely on the score of merit, and then should be at liberty to define the branches of instruction, as well as the relative importance and time which should be severally assigned to each branch. In dealing with the kind of instruction that should be offered in public schools, Mr Melville was of opinion that the universities would be the bodies, rather than the head masters, which would ultimately determine the question. The Rev. Dr Kennedy of Shrewsbury coincided with the views taken by Mr Melville, and condemned the placing of any power of restriction as to the subjects taught into the hands of the governing body of the school. He dwelt earnestly on the fact that, notwithstanding the shortcomings of public schools, they had been the chief nurseries of our statesmen, and had done much to develop those generous qualities on which Englishmen so justly prided themselves. After the reading of a paper by the Rev. T. Bisset, on the same subject, a discussion ensued, in which Sir Stafford Northcote defended at great length the recommendations of the Commissioners, especially that which referred to a school council to advise the head masters in any matter concerning the teaching and discipline of the school. In this opinion Sir John Pakington expressed his general concurrence, and spoke earnestly

of the Commissioners' Report as a comprehensive and masterly performance, which ought to be in the hands of every parent who desired to give a finished education to his son. The Rev. Canon Trevor complained of the large sum charged for education at richly endowed public schools, the effect of which was to create a monopoly in favour of the wealthy class; and Dr Hodgson, in a striking speech, exposed the worthlessness of much that passed for classical discipline in the public schools, and urged the importance of widening the curriculum even beyond the limit recommended by the Commissioners.

On the second day, the beneficial results which would follow the appointment of a commission to inquire into the management of the smaller endowed schools, formed the subject of a paper by the Rev. W. Hey, Canon Residentiary of York. He insisted, however, that there was no class of schools in which there was so large an amount of work honestly done, and deprecated any scheme which would divert them from their present purpose, and adapt them merely to the needs of tradesmen's sons. The Rev. Canon Robinson, in his paper on the same subject, proposed the division of the country into districts, and the establishment of some one endowed school in each district as a place for advanced classical education. He also urged the creation of training colleges for highly trained teachers for middle class schools. Mr J. G. Fitch, in his paper, expressed a hope that the proposed royal commission would enlarge the scope of its inquiries, so as to include the whole subjects of middle-class education; and he suggested a number of topics—chiefly in regard to the condition and improvement of private schools—which he hoped would receive attention. Sir S. Northcote was opposed to any system of centralisation, and was anxious that schools for the middle classes should not be so far toward the mere practical bent, as to lose the power of imparting culture, and tastes of a higher kind than are created by a life of trade. Mr H. A. Bruce, the new Vice-President of the Committee of Council, assured the meeting that Government was indisposed to interfere with middle-class education, unless a strong desire arose among that class for such interference.

The third day was devoted to the discussion of the special difficulties attending the maintenance of schools in the rural districts, and among small town populations. The first paper was read by Mr Canon Trevor, who advocated a union for educational purposes of such parishes as were too small or too poor to sustain separate schools. He thought that there might easily be a united management of the district school, and that the clergy might agree among themselves as to the superintendence of the religious instruction; the children attending their respective churches on the Sunday.

The Rev. Canon Randolph offered three suggestions for the amelioration of the condition of small rural schools:—(1.) The removal of prejudices and mis-

apprehensions respecting the operation of the Revise Code. (2.) The offering of State aid to all schools, by whomsoever taught, on the attainment of a certain standard of efficiency. (3.) A larger measure of bounty from the State to schools in small parishes, inasmuch as the cost of the education in such places is considerably higher than in parishes with larger populations.

In the discussion which followed, the second of these suggestions—which is, in fact, identical with the proposition so perseveringly advocated by Mr Walter in the House of Commons—was strongly opposed. It was shewn that although the rule which refuses the aid of the Government to a school under an uncertificated teacher, may seem like a grievance in a few isolated cases, yet it is most salutary and even necessary in the great majority of towns and villages. The conditions under which acting teachers, even of humble qualifications, can obtain certificates have been rendered much easier of late; and the effects of granting State aid to all schools, on the results alone, would be to throw away the only guarantee which the Government has for the proper qualifications of the teachers, and to lower the entire education of the country for the sake of meeting a few exceptional wants.

The lamentably ignorant and immoral condition of the young farm servants in the North and East Ridings of Yorkshire, who live beneath the roof of their employers, was forcibly dwelt upon in two papers, by Miss Mary E. Simpson of Boynton, near Bridlington, and the Rev. F. D. Legard. Much of the evil complained of was attributed to the annual hirings at statute fairs, where no character was asked for; and to the domestic arrangements, by which the farm lads and girls are permitted to pass the hours after labour in the same room, without the supervision of masters or elders. It was suggested that much good would be effected by the establishment of daily family worship, compulsory habitual attendance on the Sunday at a place of public worship, and of all the males under a certain age at evening schools, during the winter months. It was, however, stated by the writers and subsequent speakers, that the root of the evil lay deep, and consisted in the indifference of the farm tenants to the importance of education, and of the means of grace; and that until a change could be effected in this direction, little hope could be entertained of ameliorating the moral, intellectual, and religious condition of the young in their service.

The necessity and facilities for a further extension of the Half Time Act, to other than factory operatives, was urged in a paper by Mr H. G. Earnshaw, who found an earnest supporter of his views in Mr Chadwick, as also in Mr E. Akroyd and Mr Ashworth, both of whom gave interesting accounts of the beneficial working of the half time system in connexion with their extensive works.

A clever paper by Miss Emily Davies, on the education of girls, and one also on the same subject by

the Rev. J. P. Norris, led to a most important discussion on the defects in the ordinary instruction at girls' schools, and on the propriety of admitting female candidates to the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations. The general feeling of the meeting appeared to be decidedly in favour of this proposal, although Mr Canon Trevor and others echoed the misgivings which had been expressed in the Archbishop's opening address on this subject.

Miss Carpenter's paper on the educational help required for the lowest class of the population, was an earnest appeal for aid from the State to the ragged and other schools, which, under the present regulations of the Council office, cannot avail themselves of the parliamentary grant.

Of the miscellaneous papers which were read on the last two days, the most important were those of the Rev. H. K. Sandford, H.M. Inspector, on Night Schools; Mr John Ford, who gave an interesting account of the provision existing in the Society of Friends for the education of the children of its members; and the Rev. T. Myers, on some statistics of education in York.

There were in all twenty-four papers read before the department, and the discussions were sustained with universal spirit and ability. Although the number of members and associates were not quite so large as in former years, it is generally considered that in regard to the importance of the subjects discussed, and the thoroughness and practical skill with which they were treated, the York meeting has been especially valuable. The society met, for the first time in its history, in an old-fashioned ecclesiastical city, under the shadow of a venerable cathedral, and in the midst of associations and traditions, which might be regarded as somewhat out of harmony with its ambitious designs. But it is a noticeable fact, that the keenest interest was shown in the discussions by the dignitaries of the church, especially by the Archbishop, the Dean, and the Archdeacon of York. On no previous occasion have so many clergymen taken an active part in the business of such a Congress, and it cannot be doubted that the new allies who have been gained at the York meeting, will prove an additional element of strength and usefulness to the Social Science Association in future years.

I. EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.—The New Directory of the Department has just been issued. One or two modifications of the code of rules have been made. The minimum of lessons to be given to a science class in order for the lecturer to claim payment upon the results of examination, has been reduced from forty to twenty five. The twenty-five lessons must, however, be given in every distinct subject and on separate evenings, and not cover any number of subjects as the forty lessons

were formerly allowed to do. This minimum is fixed to ensure that students shall receive a fair amount of instruction from the teacher who claims on their account. But the rule strangely adds that their lordships do not bind themselves to pay upon the minimum they themselves fix. A more stringent keeping of the class registers upon an official form—making it a *sine quâ non* for payment—is also insisted upon.

The number of science teachers and of local classes has increased considerably during the past year. Two Royal Exhibitions of £50 a year for three years, and a Duke of Cornwall's Scholarship of £80 for two years, are offered for competition amongst the students of these classes in the examination to be held in May 1865.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM.—The Rev. Adam Storey Farrar, of Queen's, Oxford, has accepted the Professorship of Theology in the University of Durham, with the reversion of the canonry attached to it.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—The evening classes at King's College have become a permanent and flourishing institution. Professor Leone Levi's courses of evening lectures began with an introductory lecture "On the present state and prospect of the rate of discount." The courses will consist of: Commerce—four lectures on the commercial crisis of 1826, 1836, 1847, and 1857; eight, on the cotton, wool, silk, linen, sugar, tea and coffee, corn and provisions, and iron and coal trades; four, on railways and canal, shipping, post-office, and telegraph; four, on coinage, banking, weights and measures, Board of Trade and Chambers of Commerce. Commercial law—eight lectures on the law relating to shipowners, masters and seamen, charter-parties, bills of lading, wrecks, marine insurance—the policy, representations, average, total loss, &c.; four, on the law of partnership and joint-stock companies, banking and insurance companies; two, on the law of bills of exchange and cheques; and four on the duties of belligerents and neutrals.

On October 3. the first public meeting of the promoters of the Female Medical Society was held at the Hanover Square Rooms, under the presidency of Professor Newman, for the purpose of hearing the opening lecture by Dr James Edmunds. This society was formed for the purpose of facilitating the admission of women into the medical profession, with the ultimate intention of establishing a female medical school in London, it being believed that, in the treatment of the diseases of women and children, female practitioners would be very desirable, and that the medical profession offers a wide field of

useful and honourable employment to suitable and properly educated women.

ABERDEEN UNIVERSITY—APPOINTMENT.—At a meeting of the University Court, held at Aberdeen on Thursday last, the Rev. Stewart D. F. Salmond was elected Classical Examiner for the Degree in Arts, in room of George Ferguson, LL.D., whose term of office expires. Mr Salmond has held the office of assistant in Greek for the past three sessions in the same University.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.—Mr James Clyde, A.M., LL.D., one of the Masters of the Edinburgh Academy, has been appointed Examiner in Classics, and Mr Alexander Nicolson, advocate, has been appointed Examiner in Mental Science, in the University of Edinburgh.

ST ANDREWS UNIVERSITY.—We understand that at a meeting of the University Court of the University of St Andrews, Mr Thomas Spencer Baynes, LL.B., was elected to the Chair of Logic, Rhetoric, and Metaphysics, vacant by the appointment of Mr Veitch to the Chair of Logic and Rhetoric in the University of Glasgow, and that the Rev. Robert Flint, minister of the parish of Kilconquhar, was elected to the chair of Moral Philosophy, vacant by the death of Professor Ferrier.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

EDUCATION COMMISSION.—The great educational event of the month has been the issuing of the names of the Commissioners to inquire into the state of Education in Scotland. The following are the names of the noblemen and gentlemen appointed to act upon this Commission:—George, Duke of Argyll; Robert, Lord Belhaven; Henry Francis, Lord Polwarth; Charles Baillie, Esq., one of the Senators of the College of Justice (Lord Jerviswoode); Sir James Fergusson, Bart.; James Moncreiff, Esq., Lord Advocate for Scotland; James Craufurd, Esq., one of the Senators of the College of Justice (Lord Ardmillan); Archibald Davidson, Esq.; David Mure, Esq.; Alexander Murray Dunlop, Esq.; Adam Black, Esq.; Alexander Shank Cook, Esq.; James Mitchell, Esq.; John Ramsay, Esq.; David Smith, Esq.—Patrick Cumin, Esq., Secretary.

SCHOLASTIC REGISTRATION.—The very satisfactory progress which the movement in favour of Scholastic Registration is making, should be an encouragement to all who are endeavouring to promote educational reform. It is not proposed that unregistered persons should be forbidden to practise as schoolmasters, but that they should have no right to claim payment in any court of law. All persons now engaged in the profession, of whatever class,

would be registered; but, after some future date, to be specified in the Act, only those holding degrees, recognised diplomas, or Government certificates, would be entitled to registration. Thus, all unconstitutional interference would be carefully avoided, while, in course of time, the names of originally uncertified educators would disappear from the register. It cannot be denied that, by some such measure as is proposed, the public would be enabled to distinguish qualified from unqualified schoolmasters, education would be studied as a science, the instructor of youth would occupy a legally recognised position, and any other effort to promote educational reform would be greatly strengthened. The friends of education are earnestly invited to render their most hearty co-operation in the endeavour to obtain for the profession of education the rank to which its character and importance entitle it, and they may be assured that the promoters of registration desire simply to discourage, by an Act prospective in its application, unworthy and incompetent persons from assuming the duties of educator. "Let the scholastic profession be incorporated, let it have the power to reform and govern itself, then will it be one of the strongest bulwarks of constitutional liberty, the brightest educational ornament any nation has yet been able to produce, and the most perfect school for training youth in the principles of loyalty, of true affection for their country, and of religious and political freedom. But let the educators of this country, who are at present scattered and disunited, be brought under the immediate control of church or state, and the first step will then have been taken towards creating an instrument which may, in future ages, be used for establishing arbitrary and despotic power; for despotism is the natural development of undue power." If internal, rather than external, reform can be effected, more lasting benefits will be gained by the profession, and it is therefore most desirable that educators in general should throw aside all party feeling, and, by their united efforts, endeavour to gain an object which, if successful, will be a blessing to future generations and an honour to the present.

GENERAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PROMOTION OF SCHOLASTIC REGISTRATION.—At the first meeting of this Committee, on the 14th September, it was resolved that a meeting of schoolmasters should be held in London, about the end of December, for the purpose of advancing the movement in favour of Scholastic Registration; and that, after the meeting, a deputation from the General Committee should apply for an interview with the Lord President of the Council. It was also agreed that half-guinea annual subscriptions should be solicited towards defraying current expenses. It was further decided that a letter on the question of Registration should

be sent to all the Members of Parliament; and that persons of influence, not necessarily members of the profession, should be invited to join the General Committee. The friends of education are invited to render pecuniary aid, and actively to co-operate in promoting this most important object. The following gentlemen at present constitute this Committee:—Dr Aldom, L.C.P.; Harry Chester, Esq., Henry Cole, Esq., C.B., Vice-Presidents of the Society of Arts; Rev. J. G. Cromwell, M.A., Hon. Canon of Durham, and Principal of the Durham Training College; Rev. J. D. Collis, D.D., Bromsgrove, Vice-President of the Council of the College of Preceptors; H. Cummings, Esq., Representative of the Associated Body of Church of England Schoolmasters; J. C. Curtis, Esq., B.A., Principal of the Borough Road Training College; Geo. Dewdney, Esq., Representative of the Farnham Scholastic Registration Association; J. J. Graves, Esq., Representative of the Associated Body of Church of England Schoolmasters; W. B. Hodgson, Esq., LL.D., F.C.P., Vice-President of the Council of the College of Preceptors; Rev. J. S. Howson, D.D.; A. K. Isbister, Esq., M.A., Head Master, Stationers' School; Rev. W. T. Jones, M.A., F.C.P., Sydenham College; W. McLeod, Esq., F.R.G.S., Chelsea; W. Macintosh, Esq., Representative of the Associated Body of Church of England Schoolmasters; T. D. Morell, Esq., LL.D., H.M. Inspector of Schools; R. Mosley, Esq., Representative of the Yorkshire Scholastic Registration Association; Joseph Payne, Esq., F.C.P., Vice-President of the Council of the College of Preceptors; C. H. Pinches, Esq., F.C.P., F.R.A.S.; Rev. H. G. Robinson, M.A., Canon of York; John Robson, Esq., B.A., Secretary of the College of Preceptors; Barrow Rule, Esq., *Honorary Secretary* of the Committee, *Aldershot*; W. Sugden, Esq., B.A., Head Master, Wesleyan Training College; W. White, Esq., M.A., F.C.P.; Rev. R. Wilson, D.D., F.C.P.; E. T. Wilson, Esq., Ph. D., F.C.P.

THE EWART INSTITUTE, NEWTON-STEWART.—This foundation was formally inaugurated, in the presence of a brilliant assemblage, on Wednesday the 28th September. It originated in a bequest of £4000 left by Mr James Ewart for the establishment and maintenance of an educational institution in Newton-Stewart. He also directed that, about one-half of his estate should, after the death of certain liferenters, be paid to the Institution. This, it is expected, will amount to more than £6000. A brother of the founder, Mr John Ewart, desirous of extending farther the benefits of the Institute, bequeathed an additional sum of £7000 to found a school for affording "a superior education to the children of the middle and upper classes, at a moderate fee." With these funds the Institute has been erected and endowed. The edifice is a hand-

some building in the decorated Gothic style, situated on a rising ground to the west of the town, and commanding a fine prospect of the valley of the Cree, and the majestic mountains beyond. The Institution embraces a free school, in which the poorer classes will receive a gratuitous education, a high or grammar school, and one for the education of young ladies. The head master's house occupies the centre of the building. All the furniture and appliances are of the newest and best kind. The trustees have selected as head master, Mr John St Clair, formerly of the Training College, Castle Terrace, Edinburgh, who will be assisted by a staff of four teachers.

MADRAS COLLEGE, ST ANDREWS.—At a meeting of the St Andrews Town Council on Saturday the 15th ult., a lengthy discussion took place as to the working of the Madras College, and as to whether or not it fulfilled the purpose of its munificent founder Dr Bell. Eventually a committee was appointed to ascertain and report what powers the Town Council had in connection with the College, the Lord Provost being *ex officio* Chairman of the Trustees.

DURING the last seven years, Mr H. E. Gurney has invited the whole of the teachers of the Ragged Schools in London, to spend a day with him at his seat at Nutfield. About 2200 teachers from 165 schools have partaken of that gentleman's hospitality. On Saturday last 400 teachers were thus entertained.

A MEETING was held on Monday the 19th ult. at Liverpool, for the purpose of establishing a Training-ship in the Mersey for orphans and other children.

SIR STAFFORD NORTHCOTE delivered an elaborate address on the question of Middle Class Education at Leeds on the 21st ult. He advocated throwing open the Grammar Schools throughout the country, so as to carry out the intention of the founders in the spirit if not in the letter.

THE ex-parliamentary education campaign has begun in earnest during the past month. The

Bishop of Peterborough has delivered himself at Loughborough, Sir George Grey at Morpeth, Mr Watkyn, M.P., at Stockport, Mr Walter, M.P., who leads a section of educationists in the matter of Schoolmasters' Certificates; Sir J. Pakington, M.P., The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Stafford Northcote, and S. G. O., in one of his letters to the *Times*, have put forth their manifestoes upon the subject.

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

The Rev. Dr John Strain, President of St Mary's College at Blair's, near Aberdeen, has been appointed to succeed the late Dr Gillis as Roman Catholic Metropolitan of Edinburgh.

The vacancy in the Lower School assistant-mastership of Eton, caused by the resignation of Mr R. H. Balls, has been filled up by the appointment of Mr Arthur O. James, Fellow of King's College, Cambridge.

Mr Hutchinson, the second Master of King Edward's School, Birmingham, has accepted an offer made to him by Dr Temple to become head of the scientific department at Rugby, in order to carry out the recommendations of the Royal Commissioners with regard to the more systematic teaching of natural and experimental science in public schools.

Mr Edward A. Hadley, Barrister, has been appointed Mathematical Master at St Paul's School.

The principalship of the Female Training College at Durham has been conferred upon the Rev. William Hampson Walter, M.A., of University College, Durham, late Senior Curate of Sedgfield.

The Committee of Council on Education having appointed Dr Woolley as Inspector and Director of Studies, and Mr C. Merrifield as Principal, have named Mr Parkiss, the Senior Wrangler and First Smith's Prizeman in the present year, as Vice-Principal, at the Royal School of Naval Architecture, South Kensington.

The Head Mastership of Gateshead Grammar School, has been conferred on the Rev. J. J. Day, M.A., of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge.

The Rev. Arthur O'Hardy, assistant master at Wellington College, has been appointed Domestic Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Calcutta.



Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—At midday, on the 8th August, in the great hall of the Sorbonne, was celebrated, under the presidency of the minister of public instruction, with church dignitaries on his right hand, and distinguished generals on his left, the chief academic festival of France, at which are distributed the prizes won in the grand annual competition of the Paris and Versailles Lyceums and Colleges.

The burden of the Latin speech delivered by Professor Deltour, was the futility of cramming, by which, it appears, many students, spite of all precautions to the contrary, win their diplomas. The chief interest, however, centred in the president's address, which reviewed the educational changes recently accomplished or still in progress.

Formerly students were allowed to leave the lyceums for the Polytechnic, or any other of the higher schools, whenever they could pass a certain examination; but this resulted in the cleverer students skipping the higher classes in the lyceum altogether, and in ever-increasing superficiality of attainment. To remedy these evils, attendance on the highest class in the lyceums is now obligatory on all who would enter the still higher government schools.

The *bifurcation en troisième*, i. e. the division of the three upper classes in the lyceums into two sides, corresponding to what, in some of our own schools, are called the *classical* side and the *modern* side, has been abolished amid universal approbation, so far as the third highest class, or, as we should say, the sixth class is concerned. This *bifurcation* has been on its trial since 1852, when it was introduced; and it is now declared, after twelve years' experience, to have failed in adequately preparing the pupils even for commercial and industrial pursuits, to say nothing of the military and medical schools. "Are we to go a step further," asks the minister, "and suppress the *bifurcation en seconde*?" i. e. in the second highest class, or, as we should say, in the seventh class. He is not prepared to take that step at once, but declares the ultimate solution of the problem to involve the organisation of a separate course of investigation, in which the intending farmer, manufacturer, and merchant, at any rate, shall be taught what may specially prepare them for their respective destinations in life.

In a bill which has been already drawn up for future discussion in the Chambers, this separate course of instruction is described as including "lessons in morals and religion; in the language and literature of France; in living foreign languages; in history and geography; in law and political economy; in hygiene; in physics, chemistry, and natural history,

with their applications to agriculture and manufactures; in accounts and book-keeping; in drawing, vocal music, and gymnastics." In brief, this is the programme of a middle class education, independent of both classics and mathematics.

To provide qualified teachers for the above course, a new Normal Seminary is to be forthwith established, intermediate between the one which provides teachers for the primary or elementary schools, and the one which provides teachers for the lyceums and colleges. Of the eighty-nine departments of France, eighty-three have primary normal seminaries; and it is proposed that, of the students who have finished their three years' course in these, the two best in each, ascertained by competitive trial, shall be drafted into the middle normal seminary about to be established, there to pass two or three years more in preparation for their higher functions. The very site of the new normal seminary is already indicated, viz., the famous old Benedictine Abbey at Cluny, a small town situate about twelve miles NW. of Mâcon, in the department of the Saone and Loire. The Town Council of Cluny is ready to make a present of the buildings to the Government for the purpose in question; and the Departmental Board has already voted £4000 for the repair of the buildings, and the purchase of certain portions of the property that had been alienated.

BAVARIA.—Public attention has been called to the prevalence of short sight, and the increasing use of spectacles by the young. Accordingly, the authorities have instituted a crusade against certain removable causes of the evil, such as the imperfect lighting by day of school-buildings, owing to original faulty construction; the imperfect lighting of them by night through a cruel economy; the injudicious placing of the lights, or of the benches and black board in relation to them, whereby the sight of the pupils is strained; and the use of glasses not needed or unsuitable.

AUSTRIA.—Though attendance at school is obligatory throughout the Austrian empire, the actual attendance varies greatly; so true is it that various circumstances, as the sparseness of the population, the badness of the roads, and the brutishness of the people, or their political disaffection, render the strictest obligation nugatory. The per centage of children in attendance is, in Austria proper, the Tyrol, Bohemia, and Moravia,

Tyrol,	98
Styria,	84
Carinthia,	73
Hungary,	65
Venetia,	34
Croatia,	20

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

BATH DEANERY SCHOOLMASTERS' AND SCHOOL-MISTRESSES' ASSOCIATION.—The anniversary meeting of this association was held at Bath-easton, on Friday, September 9th. Previous to the transaction of business, the members attended divine service in the Parish Church. The meeting, presided over by the Rev. J. M. Dixon, rector of Trinity, Bath, was fairly attended by the honorary and ordinary members, and by several other friends of education. The Rev. E. D. Tinling, having changed his sphere of labour as Government inspector of schools for Somersetshire to a metropolitan district, attended the meeting to thank his clerical brethren and the school teachers for their sympathy over many years, and to wish them a hearty "Good-bye." The report, read by Mr Hulland, the secretary, shewed that the affairs of the Association were flourishing. The following papers have been read at the regular meetings:—"The practical uses to be drawn from the study of History," by the Rev. H. M. Scarth, M.A.; "On Teaching Reading," by the Secretary; "The importance of elementary science as a branch of education," by Mr Backmaster, from the South Kensington Museum; "The subjects of instruction in schools under the Revised Code," by Mr Linea. After disposing of the usual introductory business, the Rev. G. Buckle delivered an excellent lecture on "Flowers and Insects," the object of which was to point out the use of insects in the scheme of creation. The thanks of the meeting having been given to the rev. gentleman for his interesting lecture, and to the Rev. J. M. Dixon for presiding, the company dined together, and afterwards broke up into parties, and visited a Roman encampment, and other places of interest in which the neighbourhood abounds. In the evening, the company returned to the Vicarage, and partook of tea, which was liberally provided by the Rev. J. Brooke, who officiated for the vicar, the Rev. T. P. Rogers. Before separating, the members deputed Mr C. Crowden to thank the Rev. J. Brooke and the ladies who kindly assisted, for the hospitable manner in which the Association had been received.

SCOTTISH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLMASTERS.—The quarterly meeting of this Society was held at Alloa, on Saturday, the 8th ult.—Mr Graham, Burgh School, Stirling, in the chair. The meeting was chiefly occupied with the consideration of answers received to a set of queries issued by the Association, to procure information anticipatory of the Education

Commission. About eighty schedules had been issued, and nearly one half of them had been returned filled up. The queries related to school districts, "the religious difficulty," local superintendence, course of training for teachers, the Revised Code, &c.; and the answers given shewed a large amount of unanimity on these points. It was the general opinion, that in several localities there were more schools than the population required; that the so-called "religious difficulty" was no real difficulty in actual experience; that in populous districts one large and well-equipped institution was much better than a number of district schools, under different managers; and that if the profession were made more lucrative, by tripling the salaries, young men would be induced to enter the profession, and pay the expenses of their own training; that very sweeping modifications of the Revised Code were necessary to render it satisfactory, and that there ought to be some educational test imposed upon all children seeking employment. The Central Association have shewn an example of moving in the question, which it is to be hoped will not be overlooked by other educational societies.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE—GLASGOW BRANCH.—At the meeting of this Association, held on Saturday the 15th ult., an address, prepared by Mr John Dickie, of St David's Parish School, was, in the absence of Mr Dickie from indisposition, read by Mr Fletcher, secretary. The address referred to some points which ought to be brought under the notice of the Education Commission. The principal of these were: (1.) A uniform entrance examination to all the universities. (2.) An extension of the grammar schools on the basis of a middle-class elementary school, for both sexes, a department for advanced male pupils separate, and a department for advanced females. (3.) A re-organization of the elementary schools for the working classes. (4.) An educational test for employment. (5.) A reasonable system of paying, licensing, and promoting teachers. (6.) A written and oral examination, by properly qualified examiners, of all children leaving the common, middle, and grammar schools. (7.) The appointment of an Education Board, and permanent secretary for Scotland. A vote of thanks was awarded Mr Dickie, and a committee was appointed to consider what points should be brought before the Commission, and the best mode of doing so.

The Month.

THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION COMMISSION.—The names of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of education in Scotland will be found in our intelligence department. We have no great satisfaction in referring to the list—educational men can have no great satisfaction in scanning it. It is the old story over again,—the play of Hamlet, minus the prince. Everything seems to be represented in it but education; It is a Commission on Education; but an Educational Commission it can in no sense be called. All the churches are fairly represented in it. This every one expected; and considering the hold they at present have in the elementary education of the country, it is but fair that it should be so. But this is no reason why education itself, as an interest and a profession, should be so completely ignored. Our objection is not that the churches are represented, but that they are so exclusively represented, while education is not represented at all. We cannot single out one name from the considerable list of commissioners which does not owe its appearance there to an ecclesiastical or to an anti-ecclesiastical connection,—to the former more frequently than to the latter. The gentlemen, we believe, are all respectable,—some of them are worthy of the highest respect, though others are but little known. But few of them, however, we fear, have given half an hour's thought to the organisation of a school system, or even to that of a single school. They have not been appointed because of any qualifications they possess for giving the country the best possible educational equipment. They have been appointed solely because they know what this or that church, this or that political party, will concede or will refuse.

We must most emphatically condemn this proceeding as a reckless trifling with a most momentous question. We have great respect for the Lord Advocate's abilities. We have great sympathy for him in the frequent disasters which have attended his attempts at educational legislation. We had great hopes that he was at last coming right when he ascribed his latest defeat to ecclesiastical fickleness. But what are we to think of him when we find him voluntarily walking back into the very net, the meshes of which he had so vigorously rent? No good, we are convinced, can come of this "trimming" policy. Nothing great or good was ever achieved by it. There seems to us a lack of

independence, of honest, straight-forward dealing in the whole of this matter. There seems too much of a desire to settle the question somehow, or anyhow, and to have the credit of doing so. Though education is the excuse, it is not the real end. The schools of the country represent a power in the country by no means insignificant; and it is really a struggle for that power, and for the schools as its emblem and instrument, that has been going on for years. It so happens that the demand for an improved system of education is coincident with the demands of some of the ecclesiastical agitators. Hence have arisen fresh complications, in the course of which the educationists have been confounded with, and swamped by the ecclesiastics. And thus when a commission comes to be appointed, churchism is made the sole basis and ruling principle of selection. It is surely a poor compliment to the educational profession in Scotland, that when it asked, almost unanimously, that one at least of its members should be placed upon the Commission, no one was found worthy of the honour.

What then, in these circumstances, is the duty of the profession? Not certainly to thwart the Commission, or to stand aloof from the inquiry but rather to take means to let their legitimate influences be felt. For this, individual interest and isolated effort will avail little. Some kind of organisation seems indispensable. For this the associations that exist in various parts of the country afford abundant opportunity. Many of them, unfortunately, are lukewarm, and some of them are effete,—not all, however, as our Report of the Scottish Central Association of Schoolmasters satisfactorily proves. This is certainly a time to be up and doing. There is a fair opportunity, and only too good an excuse for rigorous and united action. The occasion will not have been lost if it tends to draw the members of the profession more closely together, and to make them feel that they have a distinct as well as a common interest. Above all, they must make plain their conviction of the importance and sacredness of their calling. They must seek to have it understood that the subordination of the teacher to the members of any other profession, *ex officio*, is fatal to his individual independence, to his social status, to his usefulness, and to the whole system of education under which he labours.

THE POSITION OF TEACHERS IN THE STATE.—Our educational intelligence contains various indications that there is a movement among teachers in different parts of the country to assert their independence as a profession. We hail such a spirit in the recently-established Committee for Scholastic Registration, and we trust that the same spirit will animate the teachers of Scotland in making their opinions known to the Royal Commission. One of the great obstacles to the recognition on the part of the public of the teaching body as a learned profession, is that it has been swamped in the clerical, either supplying it with some of its members, or remaining entirely subordinate to it. We trust a better day is dawning. In Scotland, the religious difficulty is really nominal, as far as teaching is concerned, for no Scottish teacher could or would compel any child to be present at religious instruction contrary to the wish of his parents, and such a thing as proselytism is utterly unknown. At the same time, both in the interests of religion and of teachers, we wish that a definite hour were fixed for religious instruction in all Scottish schools, and that that hour should be known to the whole neighbourhood. In the interest of religion we say we wish it, because if religious instruction is to produce a good effect, it must be given by one whose heart is in his work. Now, a teacher may be admirably qualified for all the secular portions of his duty, and yet feel no great enthusiasm in religious matters. Or he may be enthusiastic in religious matters, but not after the fashion which will satisfy the minds of most of the parents or the clergy. Therefore the arrangements for religious teaching should be such that, if the managers of a school wished it, they might leave it in the hands of the parents, to whom by nature it belongs, or to the clergy, to whom it belongs by call and profession. Such an arrangement also secures the independence of the teacher. It is surely enough that one large body of men should be bound by religious formulas. The teacher should enter on his office untrammelled, and he should remain in his office untrammelled. But this freedom of opinion is materially secured if a separate portion of time is allotted to religious instruction. And lastly, every well regulated school should have its time portioned out, and therefore a fixed portion assigned to religious instruction.

We think Scottish teachers should not be slow in letting the Commissioners know that they are enormously underpaid. A teacher who has received a thorough philosophical education, and conducts his teaching in harmony with an adequate

knowledge of the human mind, performs surely as high a function in the state as tax-gatherers; and a Scottish burgh schoolmaster, not to speak of professors, requires a great deal more learning, a great deal more wisdom, and altogether a great deal more brain, than a sheriff-substitute. But there is a great contrast in the salaries of the two officials. Some of the burgh schoolmasters have not so much as £150 a year. Government treats the sheriff-substitute in an entirely different way. "Most people," says a correspondent who has laboured long, and with great ability and learning, in the cause of the higher education in Scotland, "I fancy, were of opinion that the sheriff-substitutes were pretty well paid with a thousand a year. But so far was this from being the opinion of the powers that be, that they have just passed an Act (27 & 28 Vict., c. 106, 29th July 1864), empowering the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury to increase their salaries to £1,400! Fourteen hundred to the sheriff-substitute, and seven hundred to the Principal of the Metropolitan University—the highest official representative of the learned life of Scotland—the contrast is too ludicrous to be credible in any country but this. Even HERE, I think, it will serve to point a moral in such a publication as yours. If the Principal does not entertain the endless distinguished strangers who, in spite of him or of us, will bring him letters of introduction, the University, in the first place, and then the country, suffers. If a sheriff-substitute takes to entertaining otherwise than as a very modest private gentleman, he makes himself ridiculous."

EVIDENCE BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION TO INQUIRE INTO SCHOOLS IN SCOTLAND.—A contributor of great experience in education makes the following suggestions in regard to the kind of evidence which should be presented to the Royal Commission:—

(1.) Should it not be made plain to the Commission that the Revised Code, although sweepingly modified, is incompatible with the Scottish Parochial System, and could only be carried out successfully on its ruins?

This is a point of the very last importance, because if the Commission is issued in the terms announced by the Vice-President, Mr Bruce—to inquire into the practicability of the extension of education on the basis of the Parochial School System—then we only require to prove the proposition enunciated above, to give the death-blow to the Code in Scotland.

(2.) Could teachers not shew—and theirs is surely the best evidence on the point—that what

is called the "religious difficulty" is one in theory only, and is seldom or never met with in the actual business of school keeping?

(3.) Could it not be shewn that a thorough national system, to permeate the whole community, need not be so expensive as is supposed; that the sum at present spent on Scotland by the Privy Council, augmented by a like sum from local assessment, to come in the place of the present voluntary contributions and grants from religious societies, might be quite sufficient for elementary education, and a very small addition would put the Burgh Schools on a proper footing?

For example, a tax of twopence per pound of rental in the city of Edinburgh—one penny on landlord, and one penny on tenant—would raise a sum of £7000, affording £60 on an average to each of 100 elementary schools, and leaving £1000 for higher class ones.

(4.) Could it not be demonstrated that the Scotch proportion of the expenses of the Education Office in London, would support a National Board of Education, and that under a national system the present staff of Inspectors might suffice for the whole country?

Such facts as that elicited by the Central Association, that four different Inspectors visit one parish each year, would have a telling effect under this head.

(5.) While the parochial school system suggests the plan of arranging local salaries, might not the graduation contained in the Code of 1860 be maintained and extended to all schools? If some such arrangement were carried out, the local salaries might have a range of from £35 to £70, and the national ones from £15 to £30. This ought to be the *minimum* on which teachers should insist.

(6.) How should proper assistance be provided in a school too large to be conducted by one man? We should think that there is an almost unani-

mous opinion among the profession, that it would be extremely hazardous to commit so much of the education of the country, as was done under the Code of 1860, into the hands of boys or untrained teachers.

(7.) Should the training of teachers not be put on a better footing? The connection between the Universities and the Training Schools might well be made more close, the latter furnishing mainly practical instruction, and the *specialities* of the teacher's equipment. It would not be difficult to shew that the course of a Training School, and the new arrangements regarding degrees in arts, could be easily made to fit into each other.

(8.) Should the Commission not be asked to consider the propriety of recommending a simultaneous increase of fees both in the elementary and burgh schools?

(9.) Should the Commission not be asked to consider whether the principle contained in the half-time Acts might not be extended to the length of imposing some educational test on all children seeking employment?

(10.) Should teachers not request that in any settlement proposed, the Commissioners should see that the profession is fairly recognised? In particular, the claims and position of the Educational Institute should be strongly urged. In one of his bills, the Lord Advocate proposed that the President of the Institute should be a member of the General Board of Education, and he afterwards promised that the Institute should have the appointment of *three* of the seventeen members of which it was to consist. The Institute's claim to be the licensing body for teachers should also be insisted on.

(11.) Would it not be more prudent to reverse the plan attempted in former educational efforts, and commence in the burghs, where a managing body, or the materials for conveniently electing one, already exist?



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

SILENT EDUCATION.



THE most powerful influences under which men come are exerted on them silently, and received unconsciously. The men who leave their stamp upon an age do so more by spirit than by letter, more by their personal influence than by their positive teaching. Sympathy for the most part is the forerunner of conviction. The founder of a school of thought, the leader of a party in Church or State, gains his position and influence, first, by what he is; secondly, by what he teaches. The former paves the way for the latter, and renders it efficacious. The plastic soul yields itself to the sheer force of the master mind before it accepts its doctrines. Even judgment in this way often succumbs to force of character. There is no proselytiser more potent than personal contact. The whole history of thought attests the truth of this; every one's experience confirms it. There is such a thing as self-education; but the term is a misleading one. Men educate one another in the daily contact of life, far more than any one man educates himself. In all professions and callings, in all circles of thought and action, there is a mutual education which men give and take. It is little noticed in its progress, because it works so unobtrusively; and therefore it is more readily appreciated by its results than by its processes. All of us can call up instances, within our own experience, of men whose opinions and sentiments have undergone marked changes, —changes which, however unaccountable and perplexing on other grounds, are on this principle easily explained. The educative power of nature

and circumstance is far more potent on some minds than that of schools and universities. Like draws to like; and it is because of this assimilative tendency in the human mind that men group themselves into sects and parties, according to the principles in which they can agree. We imbibe the spirit of the author we admire, of the great minds to whose presence we are admitted, of the heroes we worship. Even the newspaper we read from day to day, if it have power and distinctive character, comes to acquire a strange influence over us, and to predispose us to its views, often in spite of our better judgment. For these influences are not all, or always, good. Men are more prone to "follow a multitude to do evil," than to hold to their well-doing in solitude. The *idola fori*, we suspect, are a greater hindrance to truth than the *idola speculis*. But whether for good or evil, the influences are at work. If we cannot get rid of them, neither can we ignore them. It becomes us, therefore to watch them, and to watch ourselves, that we may shun the evil, and cleave to the good.

If this be true of men, with how much greater force is it true of boys! If minds matured and confirmed are thus impressionable, how much more so the pliant and susceptible minds of youth! Yet in this busy practical age it is the phase of education of which least account is taken. We are so occupied with the objective work of filling and garnishing the mind, that we forget the subjective influences. The tilling, and trenching, and manuring engross us so, that we take no note of the imperceptible atmosphere, and

the silently falling dew. Nor are the school-masters wholly to blame in this. Their supply must in some degree answer to the public demand; and the demand for what is showy and effective for the time, too frequently prevails. Hence your "popular educator" is tempted to imitate the noisy demagogue, rather than the thoughtful sage. Hence, too, the tendency to ascribe the praise of what is good, as well as the blame of what is bad, to men rather than to circumstances, to the ostensible teaching rather than to the silent education, to the dung of earth rather than to the dew of heaven.

These silent influences play a great part in the upbringing of boys. Their pressure, like that of water, is equal, and in all directions. Their force is imperceptible, but it is on that account all the more irresistible. The boyish dislike of task-work, of direct teaching, has no place here. For there is no task-work to shun, and the teaching is that of example, not of precept. In all practical school-work there is a certain amount of resistance to be overcome, and there is training in the effort to overcome it. But here friction is reduced to a minimum; there is nothing to resist, and no direct effort is requisite. Watchfulness, however, there must be; for there is no circumstance in the daily routine of life but may be credited with some influence; none but leaves its impress, however faint, on the sum of thoughts and emotions which make up the character of a boy. First, there is the influence, all powerful in its way, which boys exercise upon each other. Boys, like men, yield to the force of individual character. In the world of school, as in the great world beyond, there are opinions to bind the citizens into parties, there are leaders to be followed, heroes to be worshipped. It is not always the boy of highest moral principle that makes the strongest party. Mere strength of will is often more powerful. It is sometimes nothing higher than physical superiority that carries the day. By whatever means acquired, the position which a boy holds as a leader amongst his fellows is regarded as a proud one by boys themselves, and certainly has grave responsibilities attaching to it. Sometimes it is used for good ends, with the best possible effect; as frequently, however, it is attended with evil consequences. The deeds which gain the admiration of boyhood are not always of the loftiest character. The success of such deeds is a direct incitement to the imitation of them. Not to imitate them is often to expose the recusant to cruel taunts and harsh treatment. Boys do not feel the responsibility of their position. They cannot appreciate, and therefore can-

not be regulated by the consequences of their actions.

"These boy-tyrants will their slaves distress,
And do the wrongs no master can redress:
The mind they load with fear; it feels disdain
For its own baseness; yet it tries in vain
To shake th' admitted power."

And Crabbe shews that he grasped completely the evils of such a reign of terror when he adds,—

"'Tis more than present pain these tyrants give.
Long as we've life some strong impressions live;
And these young ruffians in the soul will sow
Seeds of all vices that on weakness grow."

No man felt more strongly than Arnold the importance of securing the co-operation of well-disposed and high-principled boys, in keeping up the moral tone of a school. But this feeling sprang out of the horror with which he regarded the influence of the evil-disposed. "My own school experience," he said, "has taught me the monstrous evil of a state of low principle prevailing amongst those who set the tone to the rest." He saw that there must always be some "who set the tone to the rest." He made it his aim to win over these to his side. He made the sixth form feel a responsibility which as mere boys they could not have been expected to feel; and he staked the whole character of the school upon their firmness. "When I have confidence in the sixth," he used to say, "there is no position in England which I would exchange for this; but if they do not support me, I must go."

It is not always by the ostensible leaders that the greatest influence is exercised. There is a silent education in companionship, in the example of perseverance or of idleness, of generosity or of meanness, of truthfulness or of lying. You may know a boy, as well as a man, by the company he keeps. Arnold's keen insight into boy nature taught him this. "Do you see," said he on one occasion to a new master, "Do you see those two boys walking together? I never saw them together before; you should make an especial point of observing the company they keep—nothing so tells the changes in a boy's character." This is in every point true. No two boys will be found seeking one another's company who have not some taste in common, some bond of union between them. The question comes to be, in any individual case, What is that bond? Boys are in that stage in which human nature has unlimited capacities either for good or evil. We believe that there is nothing more pure and lovely than the friendship of innocent, high-minded boys. There is nothing, at the same time, more terrible

than the companionship of the evil and low, "Few of us," says Sir William Hamilton, "are perhaps, aware of how little we owe to ourselves, how much to the influence of others." "Man," he says, "is by nature a social animal," and the saying is equally true of the boy, who is "father of the man." We may therefore apply to boys what he says of men, and add that as they "are naturally prone to imitate others, they consequently regard as important or insignificant, as honourable or disgraceful, as true or false, as good or bad, what those around them consider in the same light. They love and hate what they see others desire and eschew." Hence the vast importance of regulating properly, and maintaining at the highest possible standard, what is known as the public opinion of a school.

But what is the public opinion of a school? on what does it depend? and how can it be regulated? The public opinion of a school, like that of any other community, is the sum of the moral convictions which are admitted and acted upon by the majority of members. In every society, similarity of sentiment is the cause of association, and assimilation of opinion is its effect. In a school the cause may not operate, for there the members are brought together generally on independent grounds. But the effect operates very decidedly. Here, if anywhere, we find what, according to Sir W. Hamilton, exists in every society, great or small, "a certain gravitation of opinions towards a common centre." The tastes, feelings, convictions of the greater number are the component forces, and the resultant is the public opinion of the school.

The deliverances of this public opinion are implied rather than expressed; they come forth in the form of sympathy, more than in that of formal declarations. It is communicated by a kind of free-masonry. A master knows when he has it on his side, and when not. A boy knows when it is for him, when against. The influence which the public opinion of the school, therefore, exerts over the minds of the weak especially, is all but irresistible. It is in this way that public opinion becomes an instrument of silent education; it is for this reason that it becomes important to watch its progress. The public opinion of the school will be high or low as the tone of the school, that is, of its leading spirits, is high or low. The amount of mischief which even one bad boy may do in a school is incalculable. Boys do not like to assume a moral tone; or to put themselves in an attitude of resistance, to what seems popular amongst their fellows. The highest form of courage is moral courage, and that is the form which

is naturally rarest amongst boys. Those who are not brave enough to resist evil, and who in their felt weakness tolerate it, soon become hardened to its presence. What they are accustomed to see they do not reprobate; and thus inch by inch the deadly virus spreads. The passive spectator soon becomes an actor: the occasional practice grows to be a habit. The habits contracted at school grow with our growth. The sum of them forms our characters when we become men. And all this is going on side by side with what we usually call education. Yet it is evident how small a part direct instruction has in the making of men. The busy teacher may impress for a day. It is the silent educators that mould the life.

But may not this public opinion, the evil effects of which we have been tracing, also operate for good? Certainly it may; but to do so it must be watched and regulated. This is one of the highest and most important functions of the schoolmaster. In seeking to do this, he superadds to his work of direct objective teaching that of a silent educator. Here there is scope for the exercise of the very highest powers. It is this sphere of duty that elevates the profession of a schoolmaster, making it not merely useful and respectable, as Johnson apologetically called it, but noble. Arnold succeeded here, as few other men have succeeded, either before or since. Indeed, it is because he succeeded in this that he is really great. His force of character, his rapidity of mind, his independence, his strong common sense, made him successful in every department of his work that he undertook. But it was as a silent educator that he was greatest—greatest as compared with himself, greatest as compared with other schoolmasters. He expressly affirms that he did not consider the public school system of England the best. But placed where he was, he aimed at making the most of the machinery at his command. The whole and sole secret of his success was the skill, and judgment, and power with which he contrived to regulate the public opinion of the school.

To do this requires no ordinary qualities of mind and heart. It calls for great firmness and independence, tempered with forbearance. There must be elevation of character in the schoolmaster, if he is to elevate the character of his school-boys. Cold, forbidding, sternness will not do. There must be geniality of temperament, and sympathy with boys; an absence of the tendency to thwart them, or to persecute them with over-rigid exactions: in short, such a knowledge of boy-nature as will enable a man to know what boys are capable of giving, and what he may fairly require of

them. His own convictions, at the same time, must be deep and genuine. He must be thoroughly impressed with the gravity of his responsibility, with the sacredness of his calling. In a word, he must have strong faith, lively hope, and all-embracing charity,—and he must remember that charity is “of all the graces best.”

The ways in which a man possessed of these qualities may exert his influence in silently educating those under his guidance are very various. We are speaking, it must ever be remembered, not of the mere teacher who has to instruct his pupils in a special department, but of the schoolmaster who has to educate them, to fit them for taking their places as men in the world. But even in its bearing on practical school-work, the effect of this silent education is very great. The influence of the instructor will be the greater, the more the influence of the man is felt. What we have mainly to look to here is not so much the work itself, as the spirit in which the work is undertaken and done. This, as every teacher knows, is more than half the battle. There is no greater hindrance to mental progress in a school than laxity of discipline. There is nothing in which a low moral tone shews itself more immediately than in the daily class-work; in the perfunctory, unconscientious way in which the ordinary tasks are performed, in the apathy of young spirits, nay, in the antipathy to all intellectual effort to which it inevitably leads. Besides the absolute cruelty, as regards its moral consequences, of a system of easy-going, over-indulgent discipline, which in fact is no discipline at all, the inertness and intellectual stagnation to which it leads, exposes it to the strongest reprobation.

Now a good schoolmaster, not merely by his personal example, but by making the earnestness of his character felt, has it in his power to produce most important intellectual and moral results. He may in this way increase the sense of responsibility in his pupils; he may elevate their moral convictions; he may educate their taste and feeling; he may even by the exercise of a silent and unobtrusive power, more than by direct preaching, implant the seeds of religious conviction in the soul, which God's Spirit may quicken into an undying life.

And what is true of morals and religion is equally true of scholarship, and no less so of science and art. Just as those who are brought into frequent contact with a man of gentlemanly bearing and feelings unconsciously contract a similar refinement; or as those who are brought under the constant influence of a man of high moral and religious principle, unconsciously im-

bibe a similar spirit; so those whose opening minds hold daily converse with a scholar, imperceptibly acquire a scholarly air and tone. Here again the teacher may by the silent influence of his character gain more than half the battle. We do not say that by this means alone he can make accurate or subtle scholars; but when he has contrived to make his pupils breathe, as it were, an atmosphere of scholarship, their efforts will be given more naturally and sympathetically to the real labour of learning, and they will in the end become broader and deeper scholars, as well as larger-minded men. It is an old and familiar truth, that the mind acquires its bent from that which it is stretched upon. It matters not whether the subject be ancient literature or modern, foreign or native, art or science, it is undeniable that a master of decided character has an immense power to give a turn to the minds of his pupils, in harmony with his own tastes. This is silent education in one of its most strongly marked, and most useful forms.

Our enumeration of the instruments of silent education would be very incomplete if we did not glance, however cursorily, at the great influence exercised over the rising generation by the mind and heart of woman. We say distinctly the mind and heart, for we cannot accept, without serious qualifications, the popular distribution of the functions of humanity which assigns the heart only to woman as the proper sphere of her influence, reserving the mind for man. Indeed, this division is barely consistent with that other popular belief, that most great men have owned their greatness to their mothers, rather than to their fathers. And it cannot be denied that during some of the most critical years of a boy's existence, when habits are contracted, when the passions begin to assert themselves, when the mind puts forth its first buds, and when the whole disposition gets its first bent, he is brought most directly under his mother's influence. We need hardly point out what a powerful plea may be based upon this for the elevation of female education. It is not necessary, or even desirable, that ladies should become learned; but it is desirable that the powers they possess should be so cultivated and enlarged as to enable them to wield aright the great influence which they certainly possess. That influence is both negative and positive. Of the former we have a striking acknowledgment in the parting advice which Tom Brown receives from his father before entering Rugby: “You tell the truth, keep a brave and kind heart, and never listen to or say anything you would'n't have your mother and sister hear,

and you'll never feel ashamed to come home, or we to see you." There is a genuine "touch of nature" in these words, the truth of which every one acknowledges; and it would be easy to "point the moral" which they teach by enumerating instances in which the thought of a mother's love, or a sister's tenderness, acted as a potent preservative from vicious courses, a very coat of mail against besetting temptations. But the advice suggests also the importance of the presence in every scholastic community of some one standing *in loco matris*, who will exert a similar check upon evil, as well as provide a similar stimulus to good. For the positive side of the influence is no less certain and no less useful. The quicker perceptions and finer sensibilities of women fit them peculiarly for gaining the sympathy of youth, and thus for directing their energies to the things that are true, lovely, and of good report.

The limits of an article do not permit of any elaboration of the important lessons that may be drawn from this great subject. We have sought to do no more in these jottings than to note points that may be suggestive to minds that are impressed with a sense of the difficulties and grave responsibilities of the schoolmaster's office. Such minds will not need to be told that Latin and Greek, Mathematics and the sciences, are but means to an end, in comparison with which they hold a position of very subordinate importance. It were, however, unpardonable to conclude without a reference to the educative power of nature. Of the influence of nature upon young persons, it has been well said, that "it engages them to contemplate the Creator in his wonderful works; it purifies and harmonises the soul, and prepares it

for moral and intellectual discipline; it supplies a never-failing source of amusement; it contributes even to bodily health, and, as a strict analogy subsists between material and moral beauty, it leads the heart by an easy transition from the one to the other, and thus recommends virtue for its transcendent loveliness, and makes vice appear the object of contempt and abomination." But by no one has this silent influence of nature's majesty been more truthfully or sympathetically portrayed than by Wordsworth, himself the poet of nature, in his description of the Wanderer's youth. As a child:—

"Had he perceived the presence and the power
Of greatness."

As a boy,

"He had felt the power
Of Nature, and already was prepared,
By his intense conceptions, to receive
Deeply the lesson deep of love which he
Whom Nature, by whatever means, has taught
To feel intensely, cannot but receive."

And as a youth, reading, at sunrise, "unutterable love" in the silent faces of the clouds:—

"Still uppermost,
Nature was at his heart as if he felt,
Though yet he knew not how, a wasting power
In all things that from her sweet influence
Might tend to wean him."

"He was o'erpowered
By Nature; by the turbulence subdued
Of his own mind; by mystery and hope,
And the first virgin passion of a soul
Communing with the glorious universe."

ADVANCED EDUCATION IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.*



On speak of the occasion which has brought us together, as most *important and interesting*, may only seem to be the recognised conventional way of opening such an address as I am invited to deliver; but surely we must all feel that there is a special propriety in such words to-day. It is no small thing to witness the dedication of this fair and ample pile of buildings to the noblest and most momentous work that can enlist the sympathies and engage the powers of man. Here aforetime has been the dwelling-place of

wealth, and influence, and position. The refinements of civilisation, the appliances of art, the outgrowths of luxury have, we may fairly conjecture, been in no stinted measure concentrated here. As we look round upon the stately chambers, the shaded walks, the broad and sweeping lawns, we see the type of what must have been a noble British home. But henceforth these lofty halls are, by God's help, to serve even higher and diviner purposes. The lamp of a rich and varied lore is to be lighted within them. Beneath their shelter the youth of Britain are to receive such a complete and generous education as (in the words of Milton) shall "fit them to perform justly,

* An Inaugural Address, delivered at Dregghorn College, 11th October 1864, by the Rev. CANON ROBINSON.

skilfully, and magnánimously, all the offices, both public and private, of peace and war."

The day therefore which sees the inauguration of such a work is one that must have something of a sacred character for all to whom the well-being of their race is dear. To many, however, the occasion is one of still closer interest. There are some before me now with all whose future life the associations of this place will be indissolubly blended. There are some who will owe to their sojourn here the knowledge that is to be their intellectual stock-in-trade hereafter, and the tone that is to be reflected in all their course of action through the world, and the convictions that are to be stamped in unfading characters on their souls for ever. For them the memories of this day can never die. The day itself must be an epoch from which they will ever henceforth reckon the beginning of generous ambitions awakened, of earnest efforts made, of trials manfully borne, and difficulties bravely overcome; or on the other hand (which God forbid), the beginning of divine gifts wasted, splendid opportunities neglected, fatherly admonition scorned, and the evil weeds of folly, sloth, and sin suffered to root themselves and grow foul and rank within the heart.

It is no light thing, then, which brings this goodly assemblage together. Eventful for many are the issues which may in some sort be said to have their beginning in to-day. May heaven look kindly on the work that we are now inaugurating, and may each anniversary of this day be fraught with grateful memories and records of good for all who are to live and labour here.

"Nascere magna dies meliorque revertare semper."

For myself it is a hard, though a most honourable duty, which has fallen to my lot. How can I worthily do my part in the celebrations of this day? It is not, I am sure, by the enunciation of sounding common-places, by a declaration on the importance of education, by a dissertation in praise of knowledge, that I can best serve the cause which we all have at heart. You are not here to listen to an ambitious display of rhetoric, but, as it were, to take sober counsel with yourselves on one of the weighty businesses of life, and to have your minds stirred up with reference to some of the great questions which the scene, the place, the purpose of our gathering suggests. Let me then solicit your indulgence while I endeavour, in an unpretending and practical way, to bring before you a few thoughts in connection with advanced or upper-class education, as it is, and as it should be, in this our time and country. Our age is a critical one. And by this I mean more, per-

haps, than the words in their popular acceptation suggest. I do not simply imply that to *criticise*, to judge the qualities, to weigh the merits and defects of systems or persons, is specially characteristic of our time. I wish rather to remind you of the tendency which I think prevails to look into the principles of things, to investigate causes and reasons, and to harmonise theory and practice. This tendency is due to the progress of scientific research. Let us see how it may be illustrated in connection with the subject which at present occupies our attention. Formerly there was little talk and little thought of systems or methods of education. Men were content to go on teaching without troubling themselves much about the *science* or *art* of their business. They did not speculate on the relation between the processes to be employed and the mental and moral constitution, or the social condition of those on whom their experiments in education were made. They did their work in a purely practical way, and if they did it well, their success was the result of a natural aptitude, and a kind of healthy providential instinct. Their programme, too, was a simple one. Greek and Latin formed their educational stock-in-trade, and corporal punishment their unfailing stimulus and deterrent. Thus there was gradually developed—in the higher walks of education—that system which found its most complete expression in our English public schools, but which at the same time extended its influence through every department of advanced education. But now in this, as in other things, a change has come over the spirit of our national life. Education has been taken up and examined philosophically. Venerable usages and time-honoured systems have been called to strict account, and required to justify the preference they have enjoyed. Prejudices have been exposed, blunders denounced, shortcomings brought to light, new claims advanced, new processes recommended, a sort of revolution in education inaugurated. This then seems to be the present state of the question. Men's minds are dealing at once with the theory and the practice of education. There is, so to speak, a shaking among the dry bones. Many changes have already been introduced—more possibly are imminent. That about which it behoves all concerned as speedily as possible to make up their minds, is *what form the advanced education of this nineteenth century is to take*.

To the solution of this problem the Report of the Commission on the English Public Schools is undoubtedly a valuable contribution. But it cannot be maintained that the recommendations of the Commissioners have settled the controversy.

Their suggestions cannot be accepted as sufficient in themselves to make the education of the upper classes all that we can need desire to see it. The adoption of them would unquestionably effect a great reform in the existing state of things. But their authors were not called upon to discuss some of the most important abstract questions connected with the subject. Thus it was not so much their business to consider whether a public school education is the best, but rather to examine into the condition of existing public schools, to report on their merits and defects, and to recommend such changes as seemed to them necessary or desirable. But the very first thing about which a parent has to make up his mind is whether he shall have his son educated at a public school, or through a more domestic and private medium. Now I shall not, I think, be misusing the present opportunity if I venture to say a few words to you on this point. Is it or is it not desirable that, for purposes of education, boys should be brought together in large masses? The arguments in favour of such an arrangement are probably familiar to most of you. It is thought that the atmosphere of a great public school is more bracing and healthy. Hence, it is believed, there will result in those subjected to its influence a manlier tone, a soberer estimate of powers and attainments, a more generous forbearance, a more self-reliant spirit, wider views of life, and greater fitness for entering on its duties and trials. That these notions are to some extent true we must at once concede. We find that in maturer life the narrower the circle in which a man moves, the more contracted are his views, and the more numerous and inveterate his prejudices. And something like this we may expect to hold good, even in the case of school-boys. Moreover, when we remember that "a fair field and no favour" is the most that any one can hope for in the world; that every man must bear his own burden, and fight his own fight in the battle of life, it does seem necessary that there should be some preparatory arena, some intermediate state, between the calm haven of the family and that great sea of work, and strife, and trouble, on which it is the destiny of manhood to launch. Therefore, though it may be well that the earlier years of boyhood—that tender time from nine to thirteen—should be more sheltered and guarded, and that the first foundations of education should be laid amidst family associations, yet, when that fresh budding spring of life is past, and a fuller bloom of powers, and energies begins to shew itself, then, at all events, there should be a transfer "to fresh fields and pastures new;" fields of a wider range, and pastures of

more varied herbage, and with a larger choice, both of good and evil. So far, therefore, from regarding—as some do—the aggregation of boys in large numbers as a more or less necessary evil, I do not hesitate to pronounce it, under certain conditions and limitations, a positive good. The microcosm of a well ordered school, I believe to be a wholesome preparation for the greater world that lies beyond. On such a scene the bold and energetic have ample room and verge enough to expatiate, and yet are kept in check by others as enterprising as themselves. The clever are taught to think soberly of their powers by contact with successful rivals; the idle are stimulated by competition; the dull in some degree magnetised into intellectual vitality by the general activity that prevails. Even timid and shrinking natures will lose some of their softness, and acquire a firmer and more vigorous tone, if only they are not too rudely and defencelessly exposed to the harsher elements of the place; if only there is a wise controlling influence to temper its spirit, and, if I may appropriate and apply a bold metaphor, "to stay the rough wind in the day of ye east wind."

For, it must be here remarked that, in advocating the *principle* of a public school, I am by no means anxious to justify the state of things as regards discipline, tone, morals, which characterises many of our public schools in England. That as a rule too great laxity has prevailed is undeniable. While subjected to certain mechanical laws of discipline, while required to abstain from certain practices, to keep within certain bounds, to observe certain fixed hours, boys have been left too much to form their own public opinion, to develop their own code of honour, to administer their own justice. Hence the lawlessness, the tolerance of moral evil, the predominance of might over right which have been too much the characteristics of great schools, and which long ago vexed the pure soul and discouraged the gentle nature of the poet Cowper. Things have certainly improved in this respect. The tone of our public schools is undoubtedly healthier. The lessons which Arnold taught the world have not been barren or unfruitful. But it is impossible to read the Report of the Public School Commissioners without feeling that there is still great room for improvement.

How, without espionage, to watch the conduct and to keep in close view the moral and social condition of his pupils; how to allow free development of character and healthy expansiveness of spirit, and yet to exercise a control felt to the very extremities of the body corporate of the school; how to preserve the native purity, and, at the

same time, to give opportunity for the growth of manliness and the inlet of experience and tact; how, as Tacitus expresses it, "*res dissociabiles miscere, principatum et libertatem*:" is at once the most important and the most difficult problem which the educator has to solve. That for this work the man is far more than the system, every one will acknowledge. It calls for a brave, true, tender heart, wide in its sympathies, patient in its spirit, clear and sound in its instincts. It needs a wise, far-seeing, right-judging head, apt to discriminate character, skilled in the art of exercising an indirect and almost unconscious influence, gifted to rule with an unchallenged but not invidious authority, and knowing when to tighten and when to relax the reins. But system also is necessary. There are certain conditions without which the tone of a public school cannot be healthy. Possibly some degree of limitation in the numbers is one of these, for while a school should be large enough to escape the evils of a restricted social circle, it should not be so large as to lie beyond the direct and intimate supervision of its head. When it does so, as is the case at Eton, it seems to be rather a federation of schools than a centralised institution.

Again, in order that a healthy tone may pervade a school, there must be in the arrangement of the place, considerable facility for getting rid of corrupt and evil elements. No boy should be allowed to remain in the school if—while there is little hope of his own reformation—he is doing harm to his companions by his contact with them. In this matter again we owe much to Arnold for his fearless vindication of his right to insist on the withdrawal (not necessarily as a penalty, but as a policy) of any pupil whose presence in the school was unprofitable to himself and injurious to others. And I cannot help observing that I rejoice to find the same right conspicuously put forth and unreservedly claimed among the by-laws of Drexhorn College.

Once more, it seems to me that *situation* has much to do with the moral well-being of a public school. Such an institution ought "to run its race," if not absolutely "remote from towns," yet at all events removed to some little distance from their smoke and stir, their temptations and their pomps. Thus will the young citizens of the educational commonwealth breathe a purer air both physically and morally. Thus will it be possible to give them greater freedom and a wider range of walks. Thus also they will make early acquaintance with nature, will learn betimes to read in that great book, so rich in varied lore, written by the very finger of God himself, and will come to

discern and to appreciate the majesty and the power, and the beauty that is above, around, and beneath them. The removal of this establishment to its present site is satisfactory, not simply because it is in some sort an evidence of its past success, or because it provides for it greater conveniences and more ample accommodation, but because also it secures under most favourable circumstances, the vitally important conditions of pure air, and spacious grounds, and fair rural scenes, and the transference to a safe distance of those associations most dangerous to the unseasoned virtue of youth.

But it is time that we should pass to another division of the subject. There has been for some time an active controversy as to what should form the main substances, the staple, the *pièce de résistance*, of upper class or advanced education.

The English Public School Commissioners have given a decided verdict in favour of Greek and Latin. They do indeed insist that these twin arbiters of the schools should be supplemented with a modicum of English, of history, of science, and of modern languages. But still they cannot admit that there is any adequate substitute for Greek and Latin. Are they right? Will the public opinion of the age continue to support their view? Now it is obvious that to abandon the teaching of Greek and Latin in our higher schools would, in its ultimate effect, be to put an end to all converse or communion with a great deal of the past life and past history of the world. But with that past history and past life modern thought, modern institutions, modern literature and languages, are so interwoven that in losing the old we should make a great deal of the new unintelligible and inexplicable. Greece and Rome have so transfused themselves into all the elements of the world's life, are so intertwined about the roots of present English, French, and German nationalities, that they cannot be passed over or superseded. In all high education, if it is to be thorough, there must be a classical infusion. But then, on the other hand, the claims of other candidates are urgent and irresistible. If it will not do for an English or Scottish gentleman to be ignorant of the languages and literatures of Greece and Rome, still less should he be wanting in a knowledge of his mother-tongue, and of that magnificent literature which it contains. If the lessons of ancient history are important, of how much greater interest and importance are the records that tell us how the political system of Europe was gradually developed; how out of rude beginnings, and happy accidents, and contending influences, our own wonderful constitution slowly

grew to its present majestic fulness of stature; how at one time civil liberty vindicated itself against arbitrary power, at another religious truth burst forth like the sun in his strength, and dispelled "the surmised mist," and scattered the darkness of error. Science, again, is waiting to receive meet recognition, as an instrument of mental culture, at the hands of the educator. Queenlike in her sovereignty over nature; revealing, like some prophet sent from God, the thousand mysteries of the world of matter; telling of mighty forces that wrought long ago in the night of ages, or that are still active in the bodies that surround us; ministering to the necessities, the enjoyments, the advancement of mankind, science may well insist that an honoured place shall be reserved for her amongst those agencies whereby the nascent spirits of the time are to be nurtured into intellectual maturity and perfection.

Among so many candidates for notice, how is the educator to decide? He knows that to extend the syllabus of school studies too largely will be to defeat some of the most important ends of education. Although some variety in the course will at once stimulate the attention, awaken the interest, and improve the mental digestion of the pupil, yet a multiplicity of subjects must be fatal to thoroughness and accuracy, must dissipate the powers and embarrass the memory. There seems to be reason for fearing that this will be one of the first results of the struggle now going on between the ancients and the moderns. The recommendation of the Public School Commissioners amounts to very little more than a proposal to add a certain number of new subjects to those hitherto taught in public schools. It is certainly the most rudimentary and unartistic way of meeting the difficulty that could have occurred to any one's mind. But possibly it was the only course open to them unless they had ventured on innovations for which the majority of those concerned in education are by no means prepared. The question must be decided very much by public opinion; and that public opinion will gradually more and more insist on the necessity of giving greater prominence to modern languages, modern history, and physical science in the education of our English youth, I feel very confident.

At the same time, I repeat, that the Greek and Latin classics must always enter into the component parts of a liberal education. The problem then which stands for solution, and it is one of the most important problems to which the educator can direct his attention, the problem, I say, to be finally solved is, How can the system of

advanced education be so reconstructed or revised as at once to retain a classical basis, and to do full justice to the modern subjects without sacrificing thoroughness and completeness, without falling into the mistake of *cramming* the pupil, and causing him to know many things, indeed, but to know them badly.

It has often occurred to me, and I have expressed the opinion elsewhere, that something might be effected in this direction by teaching the classical languages, and especially Latin, with more direct reference to their bearing on English, and by teaching Latin grammar and English grammar, Latin authors and English authors, together, in a kind of fellowship or copartnership. Then, again, account ought from the very first to be taken of the number of years which it is proposed that a boy shall devote to his school education. If he is to remain at school till eighteen, a much more ambitious and extended course may be laid out for him than if he is to be withdrawn at the end of his fifteenth or sixteenth year. In the former case, the classical element may be allowed greater prominence; in the latter, it should be considerably restricted, and the study of Greek perhaps not attempted.

Thus the plan known in the French schools under the name of *bifurcation* might be adopted. According to this system, the elementary course of study, up to a certain point, is the same for all. When this point is attained, the syllabus of studies branches off into two divisions, and the pupils follow the one or the other, according as mental constitution, probable school-stay, or future professional destination makes expedient.

It has also been contended that advantage would be derived from postponing a little the time for beginning to learn Latin, and from employing the earliest years of school-life in laying a solid foundation in English grammar, arithmetic, history, and geography. This is, I think, a sound principle, and, if I mistake not, it is one distinctly recognised in the programme of this Institution.

But there is I think most to be hoped, not only for advanced education, but for education of all kinds, from the fact, that more attention is now paid to teaching as an art. It cannot be doubted that everywhere a great deal of educating power has in former times been wasted from want of method and system. *How to teach* is as important a consideration as *what should be taught*. And till education is studied as a science, until no one shall attempt to teach till he has been properly trained for the work, our schools cannot be expected, even under the most favourable circum-

stances, to do for their pupils all that, I think, might be accomplished.

I must not dwell much longer on this topic, which is rather a dry and technical one; but before leaving it, I must take the opportunity of insisting on the importance of some "minor points," as they are sometimes, not very justly, called, which in our great English schools at all events have met with rather supercilious treatment. Such is the humble but necessary art of spelling correctly. Such again is the accomplishment of reading. How few even of those who have enjoyed the advantages of the most advanced education are graceful and impressive readers. And yet the cultivation of this art, and its exercise, if properly acquired, might be made a valuable means of imparting knowledge, and ministering the purest and most rational entertainment to multitudes. It behoves the parents and friends of the young to give heed to these things, and to require that while the more attractive and splendid subjects of study are duly taught, the less imposing but no less essential arts and accomplishments shall not be neglected. And it cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the success of this great business of education depends on the mutual good understanding, on the generous and hearty co-operation, of teachers and parents. In this respect each owes an important duty to the other. In committing his child to any one to be disciplined and instructed, a parent has a right to expect that all the best energies, the ripest judgment, and the most careful methods of the teacher, shall be exercised for the benefit of his child. He has a right to suppose that the education offered shall be sound, real, and true. He has a right to take it for granted that the legal axiom which regards the schoolmaster as being *in loco parentis*, is not like some forms of law a sentimental fiction, but a most sober and sacred fact. On the other hand, the rights of the teacher in his relation with the parent are no less certain and palpable. He has a right to the frank and unreserved confidence of the parent, a confidence indeed which is necessarily implied in the trust committed to him. And this, let me remind you, involves some important consequences.

While the parent does well to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the character and constitution of the school to which he sends his son, and to keep a close watch on the development of the boy's character and the degree of his progress, he should be scrupulously careful to give fair play to the system in which he professes to confide. It is not, I must be permitted to say, without example that teachers have found hin-

drance rather than help in the course of action pursued by parents with reference to their children while at school. Now a wise parent will always be ready firmly and unhesitatingly to support the authority and to second the aims of the schoolmaster. If in any case this is felt to be impossible, it is a sign that the association between the two should cease.

Once more, the teacher has a right to insist that his work shall be fairly and dispassionately judged. If a boy learns nothing at school, or if his character deteriorates under school influences, it may indeed be *prima facie* evidence against the school, but it is possible after all that the school may be altogether free from fault in the matter. Let not parents therefore at once condemn the teacher and the school, because of deficiencies and faults which they may discover in their children. Let them have the courage and honesty to attribute some share in the failure to the latter. Let them be tolerant, impartial, large-hearted, in forming their estimate; patient and forbearing in awaiting the issue. It is essential, I repeat, that a school should have fair play and a fair trial. Results are not accomplished in a day, and persons do not become learned, virtuous, or wise, any more than they become very base or very wicked all at once. Frequent changes are assuredly fatal to education; and if a rolling stone gathers no moss, as certainly a boy that is moved from school to school will pick up marvellous little learning. And it here occurs to me that it is a custom on this side of Tweed to send boys while they are still boys, and have no legitimate right to assume the *togas virilis*, to finish their education for a year or two at one of your universities. May I be pardoned for saying that this is, in my poor judgment, a custom that would be more honoured in the breach than in the observance. A real university education is a noble thing, but it should be the crown and copingstone of a complete school training, and not a substitute for any part of it. I will not presume to express any opinion as to the present status of the universities of Scotland, but of this I am very sure, that if Scotland is resolved to have universities worthy of the intellect, the enterprise, the self-reliance which characterise her sons, then the Scottish universities will some day have few rivals and no superiors.

But to have such universities you must have, what is a necessary step to them, first-class schools. And such schools must be allowed to do the work which, I believe, your universities are now doing.

My friends here are, I know, very unwilling that I should even seem to have come here to eulogise their establishment. But I have care-

fully considered the prospectus of Dreghorn College, and I will not be hindered from saying, that it sets forth a course of instruction at once so full, so complete, and so well arranged, that boys who have the advantage of being carried fairly through it, will be qualified to enter upon the most exhaustive studies which Oxford herself can submit for their intellectual contemplation.

And now I must for very moderation's sake conclude this address, which has already, I fear, trespassed too rudely on your patience. I do so with a most hearty and disinterested wish for the future success of Dreghorn College. And I dare to think that wish is at once a prayer and a prophecy. For it is surely not in Scotland that knowledge is likely to fail of appreciation, or its ministers to miss their reward. For those among my audience who are to receive their training within these halls, I sincerely congratulate them on the position in which they find themselves. Their lines, methinks, have fallen in pleasant places. Here body as well

as mind may develop towards a worthy manhood. Here is scope for that athletic discipline which is no insignificant part of an education that makes account of the whole man, body, soul, and spirit. But permit me, my young friends, to remind you that *work*, and not *play*, is the business of this place, as it is the business of the life of all men. Have a care, then, how you use the golden hours that are allotted to you here. Resolve that you will heartily second, and not idly or peevishly thwart, the efforts that will be made to build you up in intellect, and conscience, and faith. Strive to be worthy of that grand heritage to which, whether you be English or Scottish, you are entitled. Finally, that I may conclude in the noble words of Milton, labour "to be inflamed with the study of learning and the admiration of virtue; stirred up with high hopes of living to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God and famous to all ages."

SCOTTISH POPULAR EDUCATION.

A HISTORICAL SKETCH.



HE internal economy and supervision of schools at the passing of the act of 1646, the legislative foundation stone of the present parochial school system in Scotland, forms a curious and interesting subject of inquiry. Here, fortunately, we have very full and satisfactory information. In the county of Ayr, about four miles south-west of Kilmarnock, stands the small village of Dundonald, in the parish of the same name. A document was drawn out here, in January 1640, which throws a clear and somewhat unexpected light on school work of two centuries ago. Apart from its phraseology, and one or two regulations, unimportant and non-essential, the paper might be accepted as a fair report of a well-wrought school of the present day. The graphic quaintness and straightforwardness of the language, as well as the vividness with which, by its aid, we can realize the everyday work of our professional brethren, while Janet Geddes and her stool was a tale but of yesterday, and Greyfriars was still eloquent with the wondrous scenes of *The Covenant*; while Pym was impeaching Strafford, and while Cromwell's Ironsides were peacefully sowing and reaping the low quiet vales of the Ouse; these con-

siderations, coupled with its rarity, having only appeared in the *Scots Magazine* for March 1819—a publication itself not to be met with every day—must form our apology to the readers of *The Museum*, for quoting the *Dundonald Instructions* in full. They are as follows:—

"Januar 1640. Orders to be subscribed be him wha shall have charge of instructing the youth hereafter at the Kirk of Dundonald, whereuntill he shall tie himself under pain of deposition from his office in case of failzie, after due trial and admonition.

"1. The master shall attend at all times when the children are in schule, and not suffer himself to be withdrawn by drinking, playing, or any other avocation.

"2. If ony inevitable necessity draw him away a whole day, or the great part of it, he shall not fail to have some other in his absence to teach the scholars, and keep them in order.

"3. If it shall happen that the master have necessary business to withhold him longer nor the space of one day, he shall acquaint the session therewith, or at least the minister, if the haste of the business cannot admit delay till the session meet, that he may obtene liberty thereto.

"4. Let the childer in the months of October,

November, December, Januar, Februar, meet in the morning at the sun-rising, and be dismissed at the sun-setting at night, except some younger anes, or those who are farthest distant from the school, of whom some consideration must be had. All the lave of the year let the hour of gathering in the morning be seven o'clock, and the hour of skailing six: and such as learn Latin sould always prevent the rest a pretty space.

"5. Let the scholars gae to breakfast at nine hours, and convene again at ten, to denner likewise at twal, and return at one afternoon, so near as may be, for whilk purpose there maun be a sand-glass to measure the hours.

"6. Let the master pray gravely and religiously every morning before the scholars at their first meeting, and so at even before he dismiss them.

"7. Let a task be prescribed every morning to ilka scholar in the Lord's Prayer, Belief, Commands, Graces, or chatechism, according to their age and progress, whilk let them say every morning before they enter to their ordinar lesson.

"8. It must be carefully attended to, that the scholars be present at the sermons on the Lord's day, that they sit round about the master silent, hearkening modestly and reverently, and have in readiness what they have to say on Maunonday morning, at whilk time, as on ilka Saturday before they goe home, the master should spend ane half hour at least opening up to them the grounds of religion.

"9. They wha learn Latin must have a proove of that whilk they have learned before to say every morning, whilk being accurately examined, let their lessons in author and grammer, if they be that far advanced, be taucht, and what difficulty occurs in them, let it be pointed out to them; let the pairs of their lesson whereof they are to be examined be tauld them, whether belonging to etymology, or syntax in the author, and whatever is to them obscure in the grammar.

"10. Let them expone their lesson, and confer of the parts thereof among themselves till nine hours. When they enter at ten hours, let the master hear them expone their author and grammar, so much of the author as he may overtake, let it be examined at the same time, and what he misses then let him overtake at ane in the afternoon, that when they are to give an account of their lesson, there be nae mare to examine but the grammar. Let them get a theme to turn in Latin every day betwixt eleven and twelve hours before noon. Whilk also let be a common writing hour to the hail schule. Let the theme be accurately examined either presently after the making of it, or when they say their

lessons. Let every day's lessons be said before they skail, both play-days and others, that it pre-judge not the morning prufe.

"11. Because nae certain number of lessons can be appointed to them wha learn Scottish, to get it being a thing that depends on the time of the year, the number of scholars, and their proficiency, in respect whereof, some will have more to say at a lesson, and others less, whilk will take up time accordingly, therefore in this, let the master do all that possibly may be. And that there be na neglect therein, let the minister, with the best skilled of the gentlemen, every quarter of the year at least, stand by the master in the schule, till in their presence he have hearkened through all the children learning Scottish, that according to the time spent therein, whilk they shall measure with a glass, they may direct the master how many lessons he may give them in the morning, before and after nune, whilk their direction the master shall be bund to fulfil, as if here it were particularly expressed. At whilk time also the said minister and gentlemen shall take inspection of the estate of the school, try the children's proficiency, and the master's diligence and fidelity in fulfilling all the points of his charge, and shall make report to the session, that the master may be commended and encouraged, or rebuked and admonished, according as the matter shall require. And if it shall be fund that the master uses ony fraud to elude the trial, as that he cause the children to say longer lessons that day nor they use ordinarily or ony such, that this shall be ane fault meriting removal from his charge.

"12. For the children's better profitting, let those who are further advanced reading Scottish, whether print or writ, each of them have the charge of a young scholar, wha shall sit beside him, wham he shall make perfyte of his lesson against the time come he shall be called to say, on the negligent pairty's peril, whilk of the twa soever it shall be fund to have been. And let the elder scholars themselves speer at the master what words they are ignorant of in their awn lesson, it being always provided, that the elder scholar's furlinding of the younger hinder not himself in his learning.

"13. Let a special care be had of the children writing who are meet for it. Let the hour named betwixt eleven and twelve be allotted to that exercise every day; and, farther, to those whose special aim that is. Let the master make or mend their pens, rule their paper, set their copies, take inspection particularly of every one's writing, point out the faults, and learn them be ocular demonstration in his ain practice before them how

to mend. The master must lead the hands of young beginners, stand over their head for their direction, and be going through all for their furdurance.

"14. As the master should be careful and conscientious to teach his scholars good learning, sae sould he also learn them gude manners, how to carry themselves fashionably towards all; and for this purpose, sould learn them the forms of courtesy to be used towards himself in the schule, their parents at home, gentlemen, elder men, and others of honest fashion, abroad. He sould put in their mouths styles of compellation suitable to ilk ane's place to whom they speak, and how to compose their countenance, hands, feet, when ony speak to them, or they to them. And that they be taught to abandon all uncivil gestures, as shaking of head, arms, &c.

"15. And because mony, far less the tender youth, are unable to abide continual bensail of learning, let them have, for preserving and sharpening their ingines, some recreation; on the ordinar days, Tyseday, Thursday, and Saturday, in the afternoon, for the space of an hour in the winter, or from October to Februar, and twa hours the rest of the year. But let the master see that they play not at ony unlawful or obscene pastime, or such as may either readily defile or rend their clothes or hurt their bodies; and let a convenient place be chosen near by the schule, bot not at all the kirk yard, nor ony part of it, whilk is *dormitorium sanctorum*, a place for sae ordinary civil employment, let be ludicrous, it serving for mourning rather than for playing or sporting, whilk sould be kept honestly separate for its awn use.

"16. And, finally, as without discipline nae company can be kept in order, sae least of all unbridled youth; therefore it shall be necessary that there shall be in the schule a common censor, who shall remark all faults, dilate them to the master, of which account shall be taken once a week. And, for mair perfyte understanding of the children's behaviour, there shall be a clandestine censor, of whom nane shall know but the master, that he may secretly acquaint the master with all things, and according to the quality of the faults, the master shall inflict punishment, striking some on the lufe with a birk wand or pair of taws, others on the hips, as their faults deserve, but none at ony time on the head or cheeks. And herein is the master to kythe his prudence in taking up the several inclinations of his scholars, and applying himself thereunto, commendations, allurements, fair words, some little rewards, drawing from vice, and provoking

to virtue, such as may be won thereby, and others be moderate severity, if that be found maist convenient for their stubbornness. And let the wise master rather by a grave and an authoritative countenance repress insolence, and gain every one to his duty, than by strokes, yet not neglecting the rod when it is needful."

To such a minute and graphic account of school economics as they were two hundred and twenty years ago, a word of comment is hardly necessary. It is singular, however, to find in actual daily operation, in this obscure village school, the germ of the monitorial system—for the honour of discovering and applying which, two centuries afterwards, so much precious ink has been spilt by the advocates of Bell and Lancaster respectively.

The provision made by the Act 1646-96, from one to two hundred merks Scots, or from £5, 11s. 1jd. to £11, 2s. 2jd., though apparently little else than a starvation pittance, was in reality a liberal allowance, more so, indeed, than any made since. It placed the schoolmaster not only above day-labourers and the poorer class of mechanics and farmers, but raised him to an equality with the more opulent farmers and respectable tradesmen and citizens. The great defect of the Act was its fixity. It made no provision for the depreciation of the value of money, and the necessary increase of the expense of living consequent on the success of mercantile and manufacturing enterprise, and the growth of the nation.

The results that might have been anticipated followed. The nation began to develop its resources with marvellous rapidity. All classes partook, directly or indirectly, of the benefits thus secured, except the very class to whose exertions the development was mainly owing. With the fixed fees and the fixed salary of 1646, the schoolmasters of 1748 had to face an expenditure for the veriest necessities of life, of more than double what it was at the former date. In the latter year, 1748, an advertisement appears in the *Edinburgh Courant*, calling a general meeting of all the schoolmasters in Scotland, to be held in Edinburgh, September 1st, to concert measures for applying to Parliament for augmentation of their salaries. The meeting took place in Magdalen Chapel. The result was the publication of a very able and temperate statement of their case, and the reasons that had moved them to take this step. Among other things, they assign the want of influence and regard consequent upon their straitened circumstances. "Want and poverty," says the statement, "naturally depress our spirits, sink the credit of our office with people of every

rank, and what is worst of all, our instructions can never have their due weight upon the children under our care, while, possibly, they see their master as little taken notice of as the meanest in the whole parish." There is much pathos in this pleading, when we know it to be employed by men who, with their families, had only about twopence a-day for food, rent, clothes, books, and the hundred of ceteras necessary for supporting the station assigned to them in society.

Perhaps the schoolmasters believed that their distresses simply required to be made known to be at once relieved. If so, they were very much mistaken. The movement begun so hopefully in 1748, was carried on vigorously for a few years, then weakly and at distant intervals; nor was anything done for them by the legislature, till fully half a century afterwards, when the famous bill of 1803 was passed. Of those who attended that first meeting in Magdalene Chapel, not one remained to welcome this tardy act of justice. One by one they had succumbed in the struggle for existence, and now they reposed peacefully 'where the wicked cease from troubling, where the weary are at rest,' undisturbed by the pinching wants of the present, undismayed by the shadows of the future. But in 1748, the rainbow of hope streamed above them in its alluring and many hued loveliness. They walked like men—erect and with buoyant footsteps.

During the first few years of the struggle, measures were conducted with energy and discretion. The profession aimed not only at securing more ample remuneration, but made strenuous efforts to prove themselves worthy of it. The general meeting held on the first of March 1749, besides resolving to petition parliament for augmentation, strongly recommended the schoolmasters of each presbytery to meet, at least, once a quarter, "to converse on the subject of education, and encourage one another to diligence in the duties of their office." Here we have one, and that not the least praiseworthy feature of our modern Educational Institute. Its periodical meetings for discussing educational subjects, certainly does much to give teachers that *esprit de corps* so necessary to secure the unchallenged possession of the privileges due to them as the educators of the nation. May the Institute live and prosper, to fulfil in the future the promise of the past, and thus shew to the world that schoolmasters are capable of conducting themselves and their affairs, without the leading strings of a proudly condescending patronage on the one hand, or, on the other, being frightened into good

behaviour by the threatened terrors of an inquisitorial and tyrannical supremacy.

In 1749, the schoolmasters petitioned the General Assembly, for their countenance in the intended application to government. The petition was rejected, on a mere point of form. The year following, 1750, an able statement of their case was again put forth, with a modest scheme for augmentation. This paper shews the low ebb to which matters had fallen, proving as it does, that the average income of a schoolmaster was only about £11, a sum beneath the yearly wages of the lowest mechanic at that time. The scheme of augmentation was certainly far from extravagant. It proposed to raise the State salary and fees to an aggregate of £27 or £28 in the country, and £30 or £40 in the burghs. "It is hoped," say the writers of this paper in concluding, "it is hoped none will think this a fund of luxury, yet, at the same time, we declare, we think it such, as by diligent attention to our business, we could subsist ourselves and our families in a decent easy manner, conform to our character. Heaven is our witness, we aim at nothing more." On the 20th December of this same 1750, Mr William Smith, schoolmaster, Abernethy, and president of the Edinburgh meeting of delegates, proceeded to London to forward the views of the profession. The journey was fruitless. The contest of the Scottish clergy with the heritors, for augmentation of stipend, was then at its fiercest, and the case of the schoolmasters had to go to the wall. In the London papers for February thereafter, appears the following notice: "The petition, intended to have been presented to parliament by the Established schoolmasters of Scotland, is for various reasons, and by particular desire, delayed till next sessions." A general meeting of schoolmasters, held in September, approved of the conduct of their commissioner for not pushing their petition, and resolved to lay their distressed condition before next session of parliament, "if their funds answer, and no opposition be shewn by the landed interest." Eleven months after, the *Scots Magazine* for August 1752, contains the significant announcement: "The scheme for applying to parliament for an augmentation of the income of the Established schoolmasters, is laid aside for the present. Two-thirds of them never contributed, so that their funds were found insufficient." And so this promising movement fell to the ground, for want of that hearty co-operation, that union, which is strength, so indispensable to the success of any measure, dependent on the action of a large body of men.

Eight years after, in 1762, we find the schoolmasters petitioning the General Assembly for a general collection throughout Scotland, to enable them to commence a fund for relief of their widows and orphans, a very necessary and important step surely, seeing the utter impossibility of making provision otherwise in their lifetime. The Assembly received the petition favourably, so far as commencing a fund was concerned, and in their answer to the speech of the Lord High Commissioner, called his attention specially to the merits and distresses of the schoolmasters, affirming that "more than one-third of them do not enjoy, including their salary and whole emoluments, £12 per annum; the Assembly, therefore, hope that if it shall be necessary to apply to parliament for increasing their present legal salary, his majesty will be graciously pleased to give such countenance to that application, as to his royal wisdom shall seem proper." No effect followed this recommendation. George III and the Newcastle Cabinet were too closely occupied with European politics and Colonial taxation, to pay much attention to mere class grievances, if not pressed on their notice with vigour and pertinacity.

With the exception of one or two able papers on the "Abject State of Schoolmasters in Scotland" (such is the actual title), there appears to have been nothing done for twenty long years. These poor servants of the public were left to work and starve without, so far as we can trace, any one extending to them a helping hand. Need we wonder at the complaint of a writer of this period: "In many parishes there are no legal schools at all. Persons suitably qualified either will not at all, or but for some short time, teach in parish schools. Many of our present teachers consist of old soldiers, reduced persons, disabled tradesmen, and others who know little of the business; and many others of them are tyroes neither of age nor experience, who undertake the office, with a full resolution of throwing it up as soon as any other thing more promising shall offer."

In 1784, there was a dawning of better things. A remarkably lucid statement of the claims of the schoolmasters was circulated among the Scottish members of parliament, preparatory to the introduction of a bill for their relief. From this we extract a sentence or two:—"During the 140 years which have elapsed since the salaries of schoolmasters were first established, . . . the recompence of art and labour has increased most liberally. A day labourer, working at the commonest work, earns now at the rate of 10d. or more frequently 1s. a day, and, consequently, is

paid at the rate of £13 or £15, 12s. a year. The lowest domestic servants of the nobility, gentry, and wealthy citizens, get £8 or £9 yearly, besides meat, lodging, and clothes, which cannot be stated at less than their wages. The encouragement of manufacturers is higher still." Contrast with this the state of the schoolmaster. The circular goes on to say:—"In many parishes, the schoolmaster, including everything, has not above £8 yearly. In country parishes generally, the minimum salary has been fixed. In several of these, reading and writing, the usual branches of education, are taught at 5d. a quarter. Suppose then that in Scotland there are 900 parish schools, which is very near the truth, 800 of these will be found struggling with indigence, inferior in point of income, to 800 day labourers, in the best cultivated part of the island, and receiving hardly half the emoluments of the menial servants of country gentlemen and wealthy citizens."

The legislature was at last shamed into action, and a bill was introduced proposing to fix the minimum salary at £16, 13s. 4d., which in some cases might be doubled, with a house and garden, of the value of £3 a year, and as much ground as would pasture a cow. But alas for the hopes of the poor schoolmaster! A storm was gathering in a quarter whence it was little expected. The very first movement that the schoolmasters made in the matter, even so far back as 1748, was expressly qualified by the limitation, "provided the landed interest shewed no opposition." Every fresh effort, in all the intervening period of forty-six years, had been guarded in the same way—without eliciting a single condemnatory notice from the landed proprietors. So long as there was no immediate chance of the poor drudges being successful, the heritors did not care how much breath and money the schoolmasters might spend in seeking to obtain some amelioration of their lot; but when, after years of patient toil, and "hope deferred which maketh the heart sick," and after spending, what to the schoolmasters must have been no inconsiderable portion of their yearly pittance in seeking redress, and now when about to reap the reward of half-a-century's effort and patience, it was really too bad to have the cup dashed from their parched lips, and that, too, by the very friends upon whom, with good grounds, they relied for aid. Shameful to state, the opposition to the bill on the part of the land owners was successful. The gist of the published reasons for their conduct, put in plain unvarnished English, was, "Schoolmasters work best when half starved, and therefore we would have them kept so."

The loss of the bill was a death-blow to the too sanguine reliance of the schoolmaster upon the candour and native love of justice among his countrymen. There remained for him but to return to his daily labour, and face future sickness and approaching old age, with the mournful consciousness that it was an impossibility for him to lay up anything to meet the exigencies of the one, or supply the inevitable helplessness and weakness of the other. Need we wonder that in such circumstances educators eagerly embraced every opportunity of eking out their miserable incomes—some labouring in the fields in harvest, some becoming auctioneers, &c., while others less courageous turned to drown their sorrows in the inebriating cup—in a word, need we wonder that the very word *dominie* lost its ancient, honourable signification of lord, or master, and became expressive of something ridiculous, ignorant, and conceited, something even beneath contempt. *Dominie*, in its modern meaning, is a legacy from this dreary period.

The spirit of the profession was departed. They suffered in silence, and dreadful must those sufferings have been, for quickly after came the "dear years," that we have heard old people talk shudderingly about, with their ruined harvests, war prices, misery, famine, and death.

Nothing more was done for twenty years. In 1803, the legislature, apparently *ex proprio motu*, at least we discover no traces of external pressure, again took up the subject. Then a bill was passed securing to the schoolmaster a minimum salary of £16, 13s. 4d., and a maximum of £22, 4s. 5½d., a house of *not more than two rooms including the kitchen*, and a garden of at least a quarter of a Scots acre. This was to obtain for twenty-five years, and then the salary was to be fixed according to the average price of oatmeal during the intervening period. This was certainly a great improvement over the state of matters at the passing of the Act of 1803. The principle of a ratio between the price of provisions and the amount of salary, was much more satisfactory as preventing the income of the schoolmaster from again sinking to starvation point. But this was all; in liberality it was far behind the original enactment of 1646. Applying the same test, namely, the cost of living, to both periods, the salary of 1803 to have equalled that of 1646, instead of £16, and £22 ought to have been double, or exactly £32; 4s. 5½d., and £43, 2s. 8d., sums

that would be very much higher, did we estimate them for the present day. So much for the money salary, now for the house accommodation, "*not more than two rooms, including the kitchen.*" No fact, we imagine, speaks in more unmistakable language of the abject state into which the teaching profession had fallen, than the explanation of the passing of this insulting clause, given in Lord Cockburn's "Reminiscences." "Hope," the Lord Advocate by whom the Bill was carried through Parliament, "told me," says his Lordship, "that he had considerable difficulty in getting even the two rooms, and that a great majority of the lairds and Scotch members were indignant at being obliged to erect palaces for dominies."

The conduct of the heritors and Scotch members of Parliament in the settlement of the parish school question a year or two ago, forms a very favourable contrast to that of their predecessors in the latter part of the eighteenth century. Let us accept this as an augury for good in the education battle that is impending, as indicating that they will meet the confessedly great and complicated difficulties besetting the question of national education, in a spirit of liberality, candour, and patience. Should they do this unitedly and earnestly, we have no fears for the result. We do not expect a perfect system, but we certainly indulge no Utopian hopes when we look for something much better than the shifting, unintelligible, and self-contradictory system, or rather no-system, of the last two years.

The question is an all-important one. Unless teachers have a social position fitted for their work, suitable men will not come forward, and their work must consequently be imperfectly accomplished. This is no new discovery; it is as ancient as the days of Elizabeth Tudor. Good old Roger Ascham, her Latin secretary, thus writes, about 1560, and with his weighty words we close:—

"It is a pity, that commonly more care is had, and that among very wise men, to find out rather a cunning man for their horse, than a cunning man for their children. To the one, they will gladly give a stipend of 200 crowns by the year, and loath to offer the other 200 shillings. God, that sitteth in heaven, laugheth their choice to scorn, and rewardeth their liberality as it should: *for he suffereth them to have tame and well-ordered horses, but wild and unfortunate children.*"

J. S. G.



THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.



IN several recent occasions, public speakers and writers have addressed themselves to the discussion of the means existing in England for the education of women. A remarkable article in the November number of the *Cornhill Magazine*, the addresses of Lord Brougham and the Archbishop of York at the Social Science Congress, and the speeches of Lord F. Cavendish, and of Mr W. E. Forster at Bradford, have been among the most prominent tokens of the wide-spread and increasing interest felt in this important subject. The only practical proposition, however, which is now before the public, is the plan for extending the local examinations of the two great English universities to the pupils of girls' schools. A committee, in the list of which we observe many weighty names, has been formed with a special view to carry out this project. They argue that "the more pains-taking teachers in boarding and other schools for girls feel at a loss for some definite aim and standard to guide them in their work, while at the same time they would be glad to offer some evidence to the public that their efforts have not been unsuccessful." The committee regard the present machinery of the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations as especially adapted to fulfil this purpose. These examinations have done much to give clearness to the aims, and definiteness and soundness to the work of school-masters; and have had an excellent effect in stimulating the energies of the boys in middle-class schools. They have afforded to parents and to the public an opportunity of estimating the merits of educational establishments. Moreover, the local character of the examinations dispenses with the need of any publicity or absence from home. The committee express themselves as very sensible of the paramount importance of guarding against anything like undue publicity. "But," they add, "recent experience has satisfied them that the admission of girls to the local examinations can be so provided for as to avoid any risks of this sort. No scheme of public or mixed instruction is proposed. The attendance at the examination would take place only once in the year—probably for most of the individual candidates only once in their lives—and the sanction of their parents would always be indispensable. The practical possibility of working the scheme is no longer a matter of conjecture. By the kind permission of the Cambridge Syndicate, a private examination of

an experimental character was held in London in connection with the Cambridge local examinations for 1863. The committee were allowed to make use of the papers prepared by the University examiners, who consented to look over and report upon the answers. The examination of the girls was held simultaneously with that of the boys, and the University regulations were strictly observed. Eighty-three girls, chiefly the daughters of professional men, underwent examination. The names were sent in at a fortnight's notice, six weeks only being allowed for preparation. That so large a number of candidates should have been presented, on so short a notice, is in itself a sufficient indication that the advantages of such an examination are understood and appreciated. In every point of view, the experiment was completely successful, and a strong desire was expressed by both teachers and students that it might be the first step towards the establishment of a regular and permanent system." Accordingly, a memorial is now under the consideration of the authorities of the University of Cambridge, earnestly urging upon that body the importance of converting the experiment into a permanent arrangement. The proposal contemplates a serious addition to the labours of the University examiners, as well as a yet more serious innovation on long-established usage and academical traditions. We cannot doubt, therefore, that it will be deliberately and gravely considered. The subject will probably be referred to a committee of Congregation, who will prepare a report on the whole subject; and this report will furnish to the Senate the material for their discussion, and for the final decision of the question by next term.

Meanwhile, it may be useful to look at two or three of the objections with which the advocates of this measure are confronted, and to mention the considerations which, in our judgment, outweigh those objections.

There is first the complaint of those who object, *in limine*, to the principle of examinations altogether. It is urged that the modern extension of the examination test to candidates for the civil service, to officers of the army and navy, and to the pupils of all educational institutions from the Universities down to the little child in a village school, has proved to be a mistake, that it has encouraged over-straining of the mental faculties, that it has led students to resort to tricky and unsound methods of acquiring knowledge, and that

it tends to confer too much importance on the mere information and book-knowledge which an examination can test, while it indirectly discredits those mental and moral qualifications which cannot reveal themselves in an examination, or be fairly measured by any formal mode of testing whatever.

There is undoubtedly an element of truth in statements like these, and those who are most eager to extend the area of examination schemes, can least afford to disregard it. But in dealing with a practical question, it is very important to discriminate between the evils which *may* attend a given plan, and those which *must* attend it. Now, it is not proved that examinations, if rightly conducted, are necessarily followed by any of these results. It may be taken for granted that, if sound and exact knowledge is a good thing, any honest method of testing that knowledge, and proving to its possessor that it is of the right quality must be advantageous. Some people like knowledge, and their appetite for it needs no external stimulus. But these will always be a minority, and it is necessary in all our educational projects rather to think of that large majority of mankind, who, though needing culture, are almost insensible of the need, and to whom it is absolutely necessary to present some motive less noble than the simple and unselfish love of knowledge. A learner who is impelled by the hope of distinction or reward, to bend his thoughts with earnestness to some difficult study, comes in time to like it for its own sake; and the hope which quickened his first efforts is often found to be displaced by worthier aspirations. All experience is in favour of applying artificial stimulus of some kind to young people in the pursuit of learning. And of all forms of stimulus, the distinction to be gained from having passed a searching and successful examination is, at the same time, one of the most harmless, and the most effective. If pupils, in their eagerness to pass examinations, adopt methods which are either injurious to their health, or derogatory to the true dignity and worth of the subject studied, that is the fault of their teachers. If crammed or undigested knowledge enables a pupil to pass examinations, that is the fault of the examiner. Neither of these two evils is inherent in the examinations themselves. For improved methods of teaching, and improved methods of examination, react upon, and help each other, and it is quite possible, under the guidance of experience, to retain all that is good in the influence of examinations, and to reduce indefinitely those evils which have been found to be associated with them. We have no right to expect from them work which they were never designed to do, or to

complain if they fail to test certain intellectual and moral qualities which we feel to be important. The fact remains that examinations do, if wisely conducted, test some of the more prominent results of education, and test them well. As far, then, as these results are concerned, it behoves us to avail ourselves of examinations; and, without expecting too much from them, to get as much good from them as we can. It is certain that if the girls of a boarding-school were led to look forward to a thorough examination as a natural and recognised incident in their career, they would acquire more knowledge, their school course would be less dawdling and desultory than it too often is, and the whole tone of feminine society would be improved. Intellectual culture is good *per se*; and it is obvious that it would be greatly encouraged if girls were permitted to enjoy one of the strongest of the usual motives for exertion. Other culture, it is true is also important; and examinations may not help to promote it. But they do not hinder it, and all the moral and social influences which are now valuable in moulding the beautiful character of our English women, would continue to operate with undiminished force, even though a riper knowledge of history, language, or science, could be superadded to them.

Another objection is still more frequently urged. It is said that to adopt the same scheme of examination for boys and girls is to encourage the use of the same course of instruction in the schools for both sexes, and so to overlook those fundamental differences between the masculine and the feminine intellect which seem to require corresponding differences in our methods of teaching. This is the view put forth at great length by the Rev. J. P. Norris at the recent meeting of the Social Science Association at York, and endorsed by the Archbishop of York in his presidential address. According to these authorities, the University examinations are not well adapted to test any other knowledge than that of boys and men. The Archbishop would prefer to see a special council appointed for the purpose of drawing up a suitable curriculum, and holding examinations exclusively for girls and young women; and from this council he does not wish to see women excluded. His Grace urges that the distinctions composed by such a body would be far more useful for the purpose than certificates of the Universities; and he proceeds, in eloquent terms, to point out the evil of all attempts to assimilate the masculine and feminine characters. "In rude times," he says, "womanish men were despised, so now the highest civilisation would err if it produced mannish women. The cultivation of a woman's

mind cannot be trained too high ; but it must be cultivation proper to her constitution, mental gifts, and work in the world." The doctrine of Tennyson's "Princess," that "woman is not undeveloped man, but diverse," is then enlarged on and vindicated ; and the conclusion from the whole argument is, that to admit girls to the same examination as boys, is to break down the intellectual barriers which separate the sexes, and is therefore unphilosophical and inexpedient.

Now, if any scheme were really contemplated which tended even indirectly to bring about the result thus dreaded, it would deserve the heaviest denunciations. But the opening of the Cambridge local examinations to girls, would do nothing of the kind. The authorities of the University have not framed a curriculum, but have simply undertaken to test the knowledge of candidates in certain selected subjects. The preliminary examination, indeed, is confined to matters which are not optional : reading aloud, writing from dictation, English grammar, elementary arithmetic, geography, and the outlines of English history. But these are subjects taught in all schools alike, and required by girls as the basis of their school education no less than by boys. When once this examination has been passed, the University offers to candidates a choice of ten different departments of study, and simply requires that he shall select two of them. These ten subjects are, religious knowledge, English grammar and composition, Latin, Greek, French, German, pure mathematics, mechanics, chemistry, and natural history. Drawing and Music are also included in the Junior Examination Scheme. A similar arrangement prevails at the Senior examination ; the only *necessary* subjects being those which are indispensable to all educated persons alike, while a wide range of choice is left to the candidates respecting the particular department in which he may wish to distinguish himself. For ourselves, we are at a loss to see how the study of Latin, or of pure mathematics, can be regarded as unfeminine, or why it should fail to give to a girl discipline and culture quite as well adapted to her intellectual needs as to those of a boy. But it is not proposed that the Cambridge examiners should force these studies upon girls ; they do not indeed force any one of them upon the pupils of boys' schools.

A candidate, or his teachers for him, may take any line of reading he thinks best ; and if there be a good reason why Latin, Greek, physics, and mathematics shall remain *par excellence* masculine studies, while French, German, music, English literature, botany, and drawing, are to furnish the proper discipline for the understanding of a

girl, the arrangements of the University, so far from discouraging, facilitate this division of studies in an admirable way. The truth is, that the University has always wisely abstained from dictating to learners or teachers the precise course of instruction which they should follow ; but it takes cognisance of *all* the subjects which, by common consent, are included in a liberal education, either for man or woman ; and it guarantees to the public, in relation to each of them, that it will appoint highly qualified men as examiners, and that its certificate shall represent genuine attainments. What could any new Council or Board of Examiners do more than this ? If it undertook to fashion a curriculum which restricted the discretion of parents and teachers as to what girls ought to know, it would do positive mischief. It is easy to say that woman's intellectual training ought to differ from that of man, but we are at present far from being agreed as to the manner in which it should differ, or as to the precise training best suited for the minds of woman, as distinguished from those of man. Indeed the right training for boys is still an open question among teachers and theorists. Meanwhile, it will be a clear gain, if we make the most of such instruments of education as we have ; and if, pending the settlement of the long debated question as to the intellectual diversities of the sexes, we do our best to secure that the subjects which we profess to teach are soundly and wisely taught both to boys and girls.

And while it is certain that no newly constituted body could with advantage do more than the University Local Boards, it is equally certain that it would, in practice, do much less. Its testimonials would have far inferior authority. Many years would have to pass before it could attain the public confidence which the prestige of centuries has associated with the ancient universities. Moreover, certificates given to girls, *as girls*, could not have the same intrinsic value, or inspire the same efforts, as certificates obtained on the ground of proficiency alone, after a test applied indiscriminately to all candidates alike. It has been well urged by them emorialists, that "in the present state of female education, certificates for which girls only compete with each other, carry very little weight. No one knows how much scholarship they represent, or how far the standard may have been lowered to meet the incompetency of the candidates."

It is difficult to see any valid reason for applying a different standard to the knowledge of two different candidates, because they happen to be of opposite sexes. That fact may indeed be a good reason why they should choose to study different branches of knowledge ; but once let them choose the same,

say, for example, English literature; a mode of testing which is good for one mind, must be equally good for another. We cannot suppose that an examiner, in drawing up a paper of questions, or in reading the answers, concerns himself with the circumstances or sex of the candidates. His sole business is to look at the subject itself, to consider the average age of the candidates, and the range of reading which may fairly be expected, and to measure the answers according to their fulness and their accuracy, or the taste and general power which they exhibit. We cannot conceive how any of the methods now in use by accomplished and skilful University Examiners, would require modification, if another class of candidates were admitted. There are thousands of intelligent girls in this country who are fond of study, and who long to bring their own acquirements to the ordinary tests, of which they hear so much. It would be a relief and an advantage to such a girl to gauge her own acquirements, and to know whether they are really worth so much as affectionate and admiring friends would fain persuade her that they are. There is nothing unfeminine in this feeling. On the contrary, it is a characteristic of all noble-minded students; of all who love knowledge for its own sake, whether men or women.

When it is considered how much labour and expense would be required to get up any separate machinery for testing the knowledge of female scholars, and how many unforeseen difficulties might throw it out of gear, or diminish its influence, it seems especially desirable to utilise, if possible, any existing plan which is tolerably efficient. It is certain that no self-constituted board or council of examiners incorporated for this special purpose, would acquire the confidence of all the various classes, and all the religious parties, in the country; while the difficulties in the way of establishing such a council by an act of the Crown, or in any other formal way, are enormous. On the other hand, the Universities possess already all the means and appliances for doing the work better than any other body could possibly do it; and they are also, as we have said, in possession of that trust and authority which nothing short of long and honourable experience could have secured for them.

Finally, it has been feared that the opening of the University Local Examinations to girls would have the effect of deteriorating in some degree the modesty and reticence which are becoming to the sex, that it would drag girls into public places, and that it would beget among them the habit of looking on knowledge as a thing for public display. This fear is apt to affect the imagination

of those who do not know how such examinations are actually conducted, and who vaguely associate the idea of a University competition with strife, excitement, publicity, and unhealthy tension of the nerves. But the fear would not exist if the facts of the case were better known. Practically the examinations are conducted in private. Certain local centres are fixed to suit the convenience of the candidates in different districts. On the appointed day pupils attend, accompanied by their teachers or friends. They are arranged at due distances, from each other under the supervision of a responsible person deputed by the University. The whole business is transacted in writing, and the answers to the printed questions are sent to the University Examiners, who, after an interval of some weeks, make a report and issue lists of the successful candidates. In the examination of schoolmistresses, female students, and pupil-teachers, as well as in the experience of the Society of Arts, it has long been found that this mode of testing acquirements by written papers is just as well adapted to one sex as to another, and does not place the most nervous or timid candidate at any disadvantage. Young people who have been honestly prepared, and who come to the examination in good faith, to display the result, not of any hurried and unfair "coaching," but of straightforward and regular work, are not found to suffer from nervousness or unhealthy anxiety; and although the name of "University Examination," as it comes before us in public discussions, has a certain loud and masculine sound, it will be found in practice, after a very little care has been taken to secure for girls the same privacy, silence, and comfort which is enjoyed by other aspirants now, that the whole business of the examination is far less trying to the nerves or to the delicacy of young girls than the humblest little exhibition or breaking-up festival in their own schoolroom.

On the whole, then, we are disposed to think lightly of the main objections urged against the proposed movement, and to regard it as a wise and promising expedient for meeting a great social want. The English Universities have it in their power to confer a valuable gift upon the whole community. If they will once permit the picked scholars from girls' schools to offer themselves for examination, they will find, ere long, that the influence of the measure is being surely felt, in encouraging higher and more serious efforts on the part of learners, in producing a race of better qualified teachers, and in giving new intelligence, comfort, and dignity to hundreds of English homes.

Correspondence.

SCOTTISH CERTIFICATED TEACHERS AND THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

Sir,—It is not easy to see that there can be much hope of ours being classed among the "learned" professions until a certain amount of university training be made a condition of admission to its ranks. At the same time there are many certificated teachers, of exclusively government training, who are undoubtedly possessed of higher attainments than they will ever obtain full public credit for, so long as these attainments have not received a university imprimatur. In the words of Dr Woodford's Report for 1855-6, this is "the element that is wanting to secure entire confidence in the training school system." Now, the examinations of the University of London for matriculation and degrees are open to students from all parts of the empire, and the Calendar exhibits the names of many from English normal schools who have at least acquired by matriculating

the standing of undergraduates. Can it be doubted that, were these examinations held at Edinburgh, Glasgow, or Perth, the sprinkling of Scottish names now seen in the Calendar would soon be swelled by the addition of those of many young teachers who must feel that, more especially in a part of the island where there exists a sort of traditional expectation that teachers shall be more or less "college-bred," their character as educated men does not at present rest upon a very satisfactory basis? Perhaps some of your numerous readers may be able to suggest a method by which this result may be attained. Little more I suppose would be necessary than the formation of a responsible committee to arrange as to the locality, hall, &c., and to guarantee the remuneration of the sub-examiner sent down by the University Senate.—I am, &c.,

A PARISH SCHOOLMASTER.

Ross-shire.

Notices of Books.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Parts V. and VI. London: Longman & Co. 1864.

In resuming our notes on this valuable and suggestive work, we commence with some unexhausted arrears on the margin of the August part. The instances of diversity between the present editor and his predecessors are rather on the increase; and Dr Latham has no disposition, as he has no motive, to suppress them. In this part, for example, we find the word

Busyless, or as Todd gave it, *Busiless*. Dr Latham gives it, because it stands in former editions; but he very properly condemns it as a monstrosity. It is supported by a quotation from the *Tempest*. But there the word is not Shakespeare's. It is one of Theobald's emendations. In the folio of 1623, the words "busy least" stand where the emendator put *busiless*. In these circumstances it is very doubtful whether the word should have been registered at all.

Busyness. This trisyllable, as distinct from the common dissyllable *Business*, is not given in previous editions, or in any other dictionary that we have seen. In meaning, its nearest equivalent is busybodyism, or meddlesomeness. It is as old as Piers Plowman, and may now be marked obsolete.

But. The notes on the grammatical relations of

this little word fill two pages and a half. They would have been more serviceable had they been shorter and less prolix. *But* is explained to be a compound of *b* and *out*, the latter element giving the idea of exclusion or exception which enters into all its significations. Dr Latham condemns Horne Tooke's explanation of *b* as a contraction of the imperative of *beon*. He pronounces it to be the same *b* as in *besides* and *abast*. But under neither of these words does he explain to us what he conceives the force, or the origin, of that *b* to be. Wedgewood objects to Tooke's distinction between *but* = be-out and *but* = bôt; but he gives but = be-out. It is to be noticed, however, that in A.S. *butan*, the conjunction has no accent on the *u*, while the preposition *bûtan* (boutan) has (Rask). Dr Latham takes no notice of the noun *but*, an outer apartment, derived from *bûtan*, nor of its converse *ben* (sc.) derived from *binnan*. Neither is his explanation of *but*, adv. = only satisfactory. He says we may first write in every case both words, and then omit either. Mr Wedgewood has no difficulty in adopting Tooke's explanation here, supported as it is by the usage of Chaucer, namely that it is an ellipsis for not-but. Thus Chaucer says:—

"I n'am (am not) but a leude compilatour."

And thus, when in Henry IV., Coleville says:—

"I am, my lord, *but* as my betters are,"

The meaning is, "I am nothing except as my betters are;" leave out what my betters are, and I am naught.

Buttress. No derivation. Fr. *Bouter*, to thrust. In the extract under this word, it is spelt *buttress*; in the *same* extract under *coigne* it is spelt "*but-trice*." So also in Todd.

By. No derivation. There would surely have been no harm in giving, as Todd does, as Richardson does, as Wedgewood does, the A.S. *bi*, *big*. Under the prep. *by*, Todd's Johnson gives twenty-five different meanings. Dr Latham, by stricter classification, reduces the leading significations to fifteen. He might surely have carried his reduction further. Thus *by* denoting the "ground of judgment," might quite correctly be included under *by* denoting the "means;" e.g.,

"Judge the event
By what has passed."—*Dryden*.

Then *by* denoting "at hand," need not be entered as a different meaning from *by* denoting "proximity of place." While the "rare" use of *by* to denote proxy or "substitution," may fall under *by* denoting "presence," either as the "means" or the "manner." Dr Latham has at the same time correctly given "*beside*," denoting *nearness*, as the primary signification of *by*, rather than *agency*, as given in previous editions.

By-law is given as a compound of *by*, near, "out of the direct way," and *law*. The view of Wedgewood and Craik, that the prefix is the Danish *by*, a borough, and that *by-laws* are the special laws of a township as opposed to the general laws of the country, is more probable. No doubt Dr Latham's prejudice against the view that "any given words are of Norse origin," has led him to reject this etymology.

Calf (OF OUR LIPS). A separate entry; and no definition. The expression occurs in Hosea (xiv. 2), "so shall we render the *calves* of our lips." The word is used figuratively for offerings, or worship. When the Jews were not in a position to sacrifice in the temple, they offered, instead, the *calves* of their lips.

Can. Under the second meaning, "be powerful, influential," we have the extract:—

"He *can* away with no company, whose discourse goes beyond what claret and dissoluteness inspires."
—*Locke*.

Its use "as an auxiliary" is entered as a *third* meaning. Surely it is an auxiliary in the above extract? Dr Latham tells us that "*away with*," preceded by *can* and a *negative*," means "endure, tolerate, put up with." Is not this a case in point? If so, is not "*away with*" used as a verb, and *can* as an auxiliary?

Care. No derivation. A.S. *cearian*, *caries*, to take heed, care, be anxious (Wedgewood).

Carry. No derivation. Fr. *charriere*: from L. *carrus*, whence also W. *carriena*, &c. (Diex).

Caviar. Secondary sense not given: something unappreciated by the vulgar, as in the expression "caviar to the multitude."

Clock. *O'clock* is interpreted of the clock. The *o'* is the old proposition *on* or *an* found in *a-shore* (on shore). This is confirmed by the form *a'clock*, which Dr Latham gives, and supports by an extract from Temple.

Close. The adjective has the meaning of minute or accurate, as in "a close translation," as well as the adverb *closely*. Dr Latham gives the latter; but not the former.

Co-Con-Oog, &c. From the interesting notes on the forms of *cum* as a prefix, we extract the following useful rules:—

1. The original form *cum* is rarely retained.
2. Before a vowel or *h*, the form is *co-*.
3. Before a liquid, *u* becomes *o*, and *m* is changed into the liquid of the root, e.g., *co-loquy*.
4. Before *p* and *b*, the form is *com*.
5. Before *k* and *g*, the form is *con*, with the sound of *cong*; before *gn*, the form is *co-*; before *f*, *v*, *t*, *d*, *s*, and *sh*, the form is *con*. Exceptions, *com-fort* and *co-temporary*.

The Gaelic Language: Its Classical Affinities and Distinctive Character. A Lecture delivered in the University of Edinburgh. By JOHN STUART BLACKIE, F.R.S.E., Professor of Greek. November 1884. Edinburgh: Edmonston and Douglas. 1884.

Professor Blackie's lecture contains an immense amount of valuable matter in regard to the Gaelic language, and its relation to the other Aryan languages. The results of his investigations will surprise most scholars. He says:—

"The degree of affinity existing between any given languages may also be ascertained, roughly at least, by the simple process above described. If in any given number of words for common objects in any three languages, fifty per cent. are identical in the first and second, and only ten per cent. in the first and third, the conclusion will naturally be that the first and second are much more closely connected than the first and third; though of course it will always be open to prove by a special induction that the second took that larger material, which it has in common with the first, from some other independent source. Proceeding on this presumption, I wrote out from Gaelic dictionaries and grammars, and from the Gaelic Scriptures, a collection of four hundred Gaelic words, carefully excluding all borrowed terms, to which I could set down the parallels from Latin, Greek, German, and English or Scotch; and

on summing up the results, I found that out of these four hundred words 184 were common to Gaelic and Latin, 108 to Greek and Gaelic, 91 to Gaelic and German, 174 to Gaelic and English, and 33 exclusively Scotch, that is, 207 to the living British speech taken in the gross, with Scotch reckoned as a dialectic variety. In this collection many of these, as might have been expected, are common to Greek, German, Latin, and English, only the Scottish column containing what is exclusively Scotch; and the general result, so far as a *prima facie* conclusion may be warranted from such premises, seems to be, that Gaelic, in its material, is much more closely connected with Latin than with any other of the compared members of the Aryan family, except English; which latter result may perhaps surprise some persons; but it is only quite natural; for the Celtic element in our living British speech is generally assumed to be much less than it actually is, only on account of the general ignorance of that most ancient and venerable form of Aryan speech, even among great scholars; and besides, those English philologists who have given us lists of Celtic words in the English language, generally omit both the Scottish dialect—in which the Gaelic element is naturally strong—and the English provincial dialects, which I make no doubt contain a considerable Celtic element which might be very serviceable to the architects of an English dictionary made on the exact principles of advanced philological science, if indeed such an extremely difficult work is ever destined to be achieved."

The lecture is characterised by sound learning, scientific carefulness in drawing conclusions, noble enthusiasm, and a thorough knowledge of the subject treated.

Logic. Designed as an introduction to the study of Reasoning. By the Rev. JOHN LEECHMAN, M.A., LL.D. Fourth Edition. Illustrated by diagrams, with copious exercises for practice. London: William Allan & Co. 1864.

This is an exceedingly able text-book of logic. Dr Leechman writes with great clearness. His meaning is never a matter of doubt. He writes also with an adequate knowledge of his subject. He also gives just as much as it would be suitable for a beginner to learn and master. He identifies logic with syllogistic; but, at the same time, he supplies a great deal of the principles and discussions which are generally set down under the head of mixed logic. The only chapter which is not satisfactory is that in which he combats Mill. But even in this chapter he gives a clear and succinct view of the principal of Mr Mill's opinions on the syllogism, and lays open the weakness of some of them. We most heartily commend the work as a good introduction to logic.

English Grammar for Junior Classes. By the Rev. HENRY CLEERE, M.A., and ALEXANDER M. SHAW, F.A.S. London: Longman, Green, Longman, Roberts, and Green. 1864.

We are sorry that we must, without qualification, condemn this grammar for three reasons. The first is, that contrary to all the laws of the mind's evolution, it proposes to teach grammar to those who have not yet acquired the art of reading with ease. The second is, that the method which the authors adopt is to proceed from the unknown to the known—from the generalization to the particulars—frustrating in this way the training which can be derived from teaching grammar properly. And the third reason is, that in consequence of an attempt to render simple what is of no use unless thoroughly worked up by the pupil, the writers give definitions of the loosest character which can have no other effect than accustoming the minds of the pupils to inaccuracy of thought and statement. Thus an adjective is defined as "a word used to tell us something about a noun," as if a verb did not do the same thing, as if in fact every part of speech did not do this when forming part of a predicate. Lastly, to give a fourth reason, the author has introduced those ridiculous exercises headed, "Correct the errors," in which the eye of the pupil is familiarised with modes of expression to which, if brought up in a correctly speaking family, he would otherwise remain a stranger for life, and which, if he be brought up in an incorrectly speaking family, should be corrected only when they occur.

Spelling and Dictation Class-Book, with Etymological Exercises. Edinburgh: Thomas Laurie. No date.

The peculiar feature of this class-book is, as the writer remarks in his preface, "judicious omission." We think he has done wisely. His book is one that can be used with great advantage. It is divided into three parts. In the first, exercises on special words are given. Lists of these difficult words in common use are given, and are followed by exercises on them. A section of this part is devoted to etymology. The second part contains miscellaneous dictation exercises, consisting of interesting extracts from some of the best English writers, and from newspapers. The third part gives forms of letters. The book is nicely printed in clear, large type, and, as far as we have examined, we have found it remarkably accurate for a first edition.

The New "Standard" Primer, or the Easy Hornbook. By J. S. LAURIE, one of H.M. Inspectors of Schools. London: Thomas Murby.

This primer contains sixty-four pages, and has four illustrations. From the commencement, each

lesson is a connected whole ; and therefore the child realizes at the very first the advantage of reading. The lessons are also well adapted to the capacities of children. The disadvantages of the book are, in our opinion, that the type is not large enough, and that the exercises are neither varied nor comprehensive enough. It is of great consequence to have a large distinct type for children while they are learning to read. It is also very important that the same words should occur frequently, which is not the case in Mr Laurie's Primer. And it is important also that the child should learn at least most of the simple combinations of sounds. But Mr Laurie has omitted a considerable number of these.

Lecture on the Education of Girls, considered in connection with the University Local Examinations. Delivered on the 11th June 1864. By W. B. HODGSON, LL.D., F.C.P. London: Emily Faithful. 1864.

This is an admirable lecture ; clear in its statements, sound in its arguments, and trenchant and vastly amusing in its wit.

Dr Hodgson commences his lecture with setting aside three current and seemingly formidable objections.

1. That we must assert the absolute equality in all mental respects of woman with man.
2. That we necessarily advocate the opening up to women of the professions and functions, political or other, hitherto reserved for men.
3. That woman's domestic duties disqualify her for the literary and scientific culture which is affirmed by some to be the exclusive privilege of man.

Of these three propositions, the first I disclaim ; the second I leave, as I found it, an open question ; the third I absolutely deny."

The last proposition he denies in the following words ;—

"Have we not all of us, again and again, heard it argued that a woman's domestic duties (and by the way all women have not domestic duties of much weight) preclude any great advancement on her part in knowledge or in learning? The answer is easy and conclusive. If man, on his side, had no corresponding duties, and were able to devote his life in undisturbed leisure to the pursuit of learning or of science, this argument might have force. But is it not true of the vast majority of men, that they are engrossed by the professional callings on which their daily bread depends? And even among men of ample independent means, how many are there who have not some call, national or municipal, public or private, on a very large portion of their time? So that the real antithesis lies, not between *domestic duties* on the woman's side, and *literary or scientific culture* on the man's, but between the *domestic occu-*

pation of the one, and the *professional* occupation of the other ; the latter being, in general, far more absorbing, distracting, and oppressive, than the former, at least within the rank of life which our inquiry touches. Between those two widely differing spheres of duty lies the whole region of literary and scientific culture,—a region common to both sexes, equally fruitful, equally needful, equally attractive to both."

Dr Hodgson then proceeds to shew the fitness and right of woman to unrestricted mental culture, by examining into the fitness of women for the studies, and the fitness of the studies for women. It is surprising that it should be necessary in these days to bring forth arguments to prove such positions ; but since it is necessary, it is of great advantage that they should be presented with the philosophical exactness and telling force with which Dr Hodgson presents them. We cannot make extracts from this portion of Dr Hodgson's lecture. We feel inclined to extract the whole, and therefore we assure the reader that he could not do better than expend a shilling on the lecture for his own instruction and delight ; and if he knows any woman-decipherer or Saturday Reviewer, he might profitably make him a present of a copy.

Merchant Enterprise ; or, the History of Commerce from the Earliest Times. By J. HAMILTON FYFE. London : T. Nelson & Sons.

We welcome this book and books of a similar nature very heartily. We feel certain that incredible injury is being done to our youth by the spread of trashy, and often pernicious novels amongst them ; and both parents and teachers should feel grateful to those who, like Mr Fyfe, can combine interest with instruction.

Mr Fyfe's work, moreover, has a directly educational bearing. It is now allowed on all hands that the best way to communicate knowledge with interest is to make the pupil, as far as possible, go through the process by which the knowledge was originally acquired. In Mr Fyfe's book the reader is presented with a survey of the principal countries in the world in the very aspects in which they would naturally attract our attention. And not only would a boy acquire a knowledge of, and an interest in this geographical knowledge, but he would be led to think of the effects of commerce, and to trace the various stages of the progress of civilization in matters which are quite within his comprehension. Teachers will accordingly find in the work a great deal that will help them to enliven their geographical lessons. And we could not conceive a better present for a boy of thirteen or upwards. It is beautifully got up, and tastefully illustrated. The chapters are of a moderate size ; and Mr Fyfe writes with ease, with an extensive knowledge of his subject, and his book abounds in most interesting descriptions and facts.

The Principles of Spiritualists Exposed, and the Phenomena Exhibited by Spiritualists Explained in Two Lectures. Delivered in the United States in the year 1859. London: Hamilton, Adams, and Co. 1864.

These two lectures are able and well worth perusal. The phenomena which the lecturer undertakes to explain are not the mere tricks which spiritualists frequently play off on their dupes, but real phenomena of an extraordinary nature. The lecturer undertakes to shew that both classes of these phenomena are natural. The first class, lifting heavy masses, making pots and pans dance about in the room, &c., he explains through a peculiar state of the human organism. The instances he adduces are interesting, but his solution, or rather Arago's, is not entirely satisfactory. The second class consists of cases in which the spirit medium reveals to the inquirer things which the medium could not have known in any ordinary way. The lecturer's explanation is, that the inquirer is brought into mesmeric rapport with the medium, and in consequence of this, the medium is entirely subject to the will of the inquirer, in other words, knows what he wills it to know, but is ignorant of what he is ignorant. The lecturer completely satisfies us as to this portion of his explanation, and his elucidation is ingenious as it is sound.

The Pilgrim's Progress. London: Thomas Murby. 1864.

This is one of Mr Laurie's series of interesting books called the Shilling Entertaining Library. It

contains only the first part of John Bunyan's marvellous work. It is nicely printed, and adorned with four illustrations. The text is cleared of the numerous references to Scripture which occur in the work, and occasionally slight verbal changes are introduced. The Editor gives no intimation to what extent he has altered, and supplies us with no information as to the peculiarities of his edition.

PERIODICALS.

The Family Treasury of Sunday Reading contains articles by eminent contributors, and is remarkably varied in its interest. The number for this month contains, among other things, a sermon by Mr Dykes; a description of the shrines of Phenicia and the cities of Phenicia, by Professor Porter; a portion of a story of the Times of Whitefield and the Wealeys, by the author of the *Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotta Family*. The *Children's Treasury* is a delightful feature in the work. The stories and descriptions given are sure at once to please and benefit children.

Pleasant Hours answers to its name. The article on Coleridge's Cottage is pleasantly and cleverly written; and the account of a visit to Dahomey, and the article on Owls, are both interesting.

The Church Builder: a Quarterly Journal of Church Extension in England and Wales, is a very cheap, beautifully got up periodical, full of information on the structure of churches, ancient and modern.

The Sower is a halfpenny monthly religious publication.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

I think "C. L. F.," in criticising the analysis of the sentence, "The crime of which he has been found guilty, is one which I never believed he could have committed," has overlooked one error made by "Essay." "Essay" says the adjective clause, "of which he has been found guilty," enlarges the predicate. Is it not rather an enlargement of the subject? It seems to me that by construing it with the predicate, we may infer that "he has been found guilty" of other crimes also—an inference which the sentence does not warrant. R. A. P.

26.

Prin co-ordin.	{	The state	.	.	subj.
		of the world	.	.	attr. to subj.
		is	.	.	pred.
		in a state (condition)	.	.	ext. of pred.
		and —	.	.	connective.
		much power	.	.	subj.
		depends	.	.	pred.
		on action (ground)	.	.	ext. of pred.
		such	{ that—		
		so			
Adv. to prin. (conseq.)	{	Everything	.	.	subj.
		seems to say	.	.	pred.
		aloud (manner)	.	.	ext. of pred.
		to every man	.	.	indir. obj.

a^s Subst. obj. to *a*¹.

I. Do	pred.
thou	subj. (under.)
something	obj.
II. Do it	emphatic repetition,
III. Do it	corresponding to middle and end of act.

QUENTIN.

II. Pred. *have proved*III. Object of verb, *source*.IV. Attrib. adj. of obj. { 1. Article *a*.
2. Prep. phrase of recreation.

V. Complement of pred.—indir. obj. to the most profound philosophers.

QUENTIN.

"Ar." after giving the same analysis as "Quentin," in a slightly different form, says:—The only peculiarity is that U is subordinate to the subject of A, and the predicate of B. But in *logic* though not in *grammar*, in *thought* though not in *expression*, "*so much*" is the predicate of B, which is equal to "what depends on action is so much."

[This query is also answered by F. H. and A. R. P.]

27.

A.

"Flowers form one of the first delights of early age."

I. Subj. *flowers*.II. Pred. *form*.III. Object of verb, *one* (viz. *delights*).IV. Attrib. adj. of obj. { 1. Prop. phrase of the first delights
2. Do. to (1) of early age.

B.

and—"They have proved a source of," &c.

I. Subj. *they* (viz. *flowers*).

There is no difficulty whatever. "A source" is the completion of "proved." If "proved" is regarded as a neuter verb, "source" is nom. case. If you want to explain the origin of this intransitive use of the verb supply the ellipsis "*themselves to be*." Many other words, such as *except*, *concerning*, *both*, *either*, &c., are susceptible of a like twofold treatment: one according to original, the other according to present elliptical usage.

Ar.

[This query is also answered by F. H. and A. R. P.]

28. Supply ellipsis "and it consists in an equal return" before "of thanks." *Which thanks* is equal to "and these thanks," as is well explained in last Number by "Ensenada." There is no other difficulty.

Ar.

[Answered also by F. H.]

Sent.	Con.	Subj.	Pred.	Obj.
Prin.		Gratitude	consists	
			(1.) in an equal return of benefits (material),	
			(2.) in an equal return of thanks (do.)	
Adv. Condit.	{ if	we	are able to give	them
	{ if	we	are not able to give	benefits.
Prin. co-ord. (effect.)	Therefore and ∴	which thanks = these thanks	must rise	
			always (time),	
Adv. Degree.	{ in proportion as	{ the benefits received (adj.)	are great	
	{ and,,	{ the receiver	is incapable of making	any other sort (of requital (attr).)
				QUENTIN.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

We are compelled to omit the Mathematical portion of Notes and Queries for want of space. We regret that several typographical errors appeared in this portion of last Number. We now give the following corrections:—

In No. 15, for "*ab, ef, de, = cd, af, be,*" read *ab.ef.de = cd.af.be* (1)," and from this to the end read, "For the same reason, in quadrilateral DB'D', supposing that *cadb* cuts B'D' in *z*, we have *ab.cē.df = cd.ad.bf*, which expression may readily be shewn to be equal to *ab.ef.de = cd.af.be* (2). Hence from (1) and (2) *de : be :: de : bd ∴* (dividendo) *de : bd :: de : bd*, that is *de = bd*, or *z* coincides with *e*."

In No. 16, for "*v*" and "*+*," read "*r*" and "*×*."



Education at Home.

I. THE ARCHBISHOP OF YORK'S ADDRESS AT THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CONGRESS.

The departments of education to which I wish to draw your attention in the present address are three—the highest education of the country, carried on in our public schools, the education of the sons of yeomen and of what are called the middle classes, and the education of girls in the middle and highest schools. These are the subjects which seem to me to belong to this year and to the present meeting. National-school education has received a large share of public attention in the debates and controversy about the Revised Code. The alterations made thereby have produced some of the expected results; but probably most of us expected a larger reduction in the number of pupil-teachers than has actually taken place. The number admitted in 1863 to apprenticeship “was greater than that in 1862 by 209, and only less by 13 than the number admitted in 1861 under the previous code.”* There is a falling off in the numbers of students in normal schools, upon which we depend for our supply of masters and mistresses; but three-fifths of the decrease is in Scotland, where the number of those in training was already somewhat in excess. In England the decrease amounts to about 200. In parts of this great country the education of the poor is subject to one peculiar disadvantage. In the rural districts one parish consists, perhaps, of three or more hamlets or townships, each with a population of one or two hundred, too small to sustain a school for itself, and too distant from its neighbours to combine effectually with them. In fact, the parishes with small populations take little advantage of the Government regulations. Of the parishes with more than 5000 inhabitants, which include in the aggregate nearly 11,000,000 of our population, only 8½ per cent. are without some school aided by Government. But of the small parishes, with less than 500 inhabitants, which include about 2,000,000 of the people, 91 per cent. are without a Government school. The total number of these small parishes is no less than 8761. It is a somewhat startling and humiliating fact, yet one not to be lost sight of, that the operations of the Committee of Council, after so many years, have only reached 3851 parishes, while 11,024 are untouched by them altogether. It is true that the very populous parishes are chiefly found in the minority; but the parishes unassisted, because unable or unwilling to assist themselves, contain several millions of our fellow-creatures. It is not to be supposed that the small parishes in this country enjoy no education; endowed schools, or those that private persons wholly maintain, or the small dame-school, give some instruction;

and of the simplest elements of knowledge few of the people are quite destitute. But really good, efficient education, with the best methods, teaching, and inspection, is not found in the very small villages, and probably never can be. Meantime, some progress is apparent throughout the country, and new schools come under inspection year by year. Last year saw additional accommodation provided for 27,000 children; but wealth and population are increasing so rapidly that this cannot be called a very brilliant result. I have been much interested in the papers of Mr Chadwick upon the great success of schools where the time of study is much shorter than the five or six hours usually so devoted. He shews with great force that prolonged attention is physically impossible for a young child; that the power of attention grows with the growth, and that in ordinary schools many of the school hours are wasted because they make an impossible demand upon the child's immature powers. Mr Chadwick shews that short lessons with bodily work or exercises interspersed actually produce better intellectual results than lessons twice as long without the relief of bodily exertion. The facts and opinions that he has collected should be known to all employers of labour. A benevolent master may give the children he employs the advantage of a short schooling, with little or no loss to himself, and with the assurance that it will be a real education to them. Such observations as those of Mr Chadwick ought to alter considerably the ordinary opinions about education. I. These remarks being made upon a subject in which we are all interested, but which most of us have watched with attention in former years, I proceed to consider those topics which the present year presses upon our notice. And, first, let me speak of the public schools. The very able Report of the Royal Commissioners appointed to inquire into the revenues and management of nine of the principal schools cannot fail to have great effect upon the state of education. But this will be produced even more, I think, by the abundant information which the Commissioners have collected and arranged by an admirable method than by the recommendations by which this information is accompanied, valuable as these are. Brought into strong light, many abuses that exist will disappear, while the best and most successful modes of teaching and management in one school will gradually spread through the others. According to the Commissioners, a public school should be managed by a body of governors, by a head master, and by assistant masters. All these elements exist at present, but the governors would be expected henceforth to take a more prominent share in the conduct of the school, and it is therefore recommended that the mode of appointment should be so

* Report of Committee of Council, 1863-4, p. 23.

modified as to secure an efficient body. To them would belong all financial and sanitary questions connected with the school, the number of the boys and the terms of admission, the regulation of the chapel services, the times and duration of the holidays, the introduction of new branches of study and the suppression of old ones, and the relative importance to be assigned to each branch of study. They should be empowered and charged to make regulations in all these subjects from time to time, but they should be bound to consult the head master and to hear his views before making any regulation upon any of these subjects. That questions of fees and payments, of the state of the school buildings, and of the footing on which foundation boys should stand in the school, may well be left to a body of governors I have no doubt. At the Charterhouse, and probably at other schools, great zeal and attention are shewn by the governors in questions connected with property and with the improvement of the comfort of the boys; it may be always possible to secure this kind of service from a well-chosen body of governors. But I doubt whether such a body ought to have forced upon them the function of arranging the studies of the school. The initiative in such changes should rest with the head master, who has the strongest personal interest in the success of the school as a place of education, who is chosen for his knowledge of the science of education among other qualities, and whose authority with his masters and his pupils would be impaired by any suspicion which might arise that one or two clever persons in the governing body were bent on pointing out flaws in the system he pursued, and were restless in devising and proposing remedies. The education of our great schools is so constantly tested in the University examinations, and in other like struggles, that no master would be able to neglect any of the subjects of the curriculum, or to adhere to obsolete books or antiquated methods, without being overtaken by speedy disappointments and failures, which would react against the prosperity of the school. A master is much more likely than any governing body that I can conceive to be acquainted with the present educational requirements, and much more interested in meeting them promptly. It is not expedient to impose on the governors as one of their duties that which they must either get the master to do for them, or must carry through for themselves at some peril to that authority of the head master without which no school can prosper. Let the choice of books, of studies, of the relative proportion of studies, be vested in the head master, subject to the approval of the governing body,—an approval which, except where there were strong grounds for interference, would always be accorded. I am emboldened to express this opinion by the fact that it has been maintained by one of the best scholars and most successful teachers in England, Dr Kennedy, during the present Congress. The same objections would apply much more strongly to

the recommendation as to a school council, consisting of the head master and the assistants, or representatives of the assistants, meeting once a month, and empowered to discuss any subject brought before them by any one of the body connected with the discipline or instruction. This body would be entitled to advise the head master, and to address the governors if a majority should think fit. Now, this suggestion would establish by a law a practice which has spontaneously grown up in some schools, that the head master consults with the assistant masters, meeting them from time to time for that purpose. But the value of the practice arises from the fact that it is spontaneous, and is not enforced upon the head master by any regulation. At present it is the natural means by which he ascertains the mind of his subordinates, and keeps himself acquainted with the working of the whole establishment. His willingness to consult them, and to comply with all reasonable wishes, conciliates their confidence, prevents the upgrowth of private grievances and the formation of cabals, and places them in the relation of friends and advisers to him in the common work. Alter this arrangement into a matter of right, and all the grace and the beauty of it departs at once. It is no longer a graceful concession from the highest authority in the school to his subordinate officers; it is a right which they all possess in common. They are, in the words of the Report, "entitled to advise" him, and entitled to address the governors if he is deaf to their advice. The establishment of such a council would be a fundamental change in the relations of the masters of a school. It might enable one or two ambitious men, with crotchets about education or discipline, to weaken materially the authority of the head master among the masters, and such a deplorable difference would soon be felt or understood by the boys. These two recommendations of the Commissioners might be of some use in the case of a supine or incompetent head master. But the head master is the school; and no talent or zeal in the assistant masters, no vigilance in the governing body, no council entitled to advise, would be able to remedy the evil in the very rare case of a head master unfit for his high office. The great function of governors is to choose the right head, and to support him. We should expect to find that classics are still to be preserved as the chief subject of study. But one of the most useful portions of the Report is that which vindicates for mathematics, for modern languages, for natural science, and even for music and drawing, a substantial share in the educational course, and which provides that a student may, after a certain point, abandon some portion of classical work in order to find time for other subjects of study. It will probably be generally admitted that this valuable volume has gone as far as any such inquiry can do towards the solution of a most difficult problem—that of harmonising the ancient studies with the great variety of modern knowledge and the different modes

of modern life. This report, with its enormous mass of evidence, must be regarded not as a complete solution of the question of school reform, but rather as an excellent starting-point for new experiments towards a solution. And of this question the hardest part is, what shall be done with the dunce? When a youth presents himself for admission at the university he has spent seven or eight years in an education almost exclusively classical. He is expected to translate passably a small portion of a Latin and another of a Greek author, selected from those which he has read, and to turn into Latin a short and easy passage of English, and to answer some easy questions in grammar, and to shew some knowledge of the common rules of arithmetic. This is no very formidable demand. At the largest college in Oxford, one-third of the candidates in a given year failed to meet it, and were rejected. They are thus described in the evidence:—"Very few can construe with accuracy a piece from an author they profess to have read. We never try them with an unseen passage; it would be useless to do so. . . . Tolerable Latin prose is very rare. Perhaps one piece in four is free from bad blunders. A good style is scarcely ever seen. The answers we get to simple grammar questions are very inaccurate." Arithmetic has improved, but "the answers to the questions in arithmetic do not encourage us to examine them in *Euclid* or algebra. In such an account, and any Oxford man will recognise its features, there is, indeed, much to think about. That seven years out of our short life should have been spent, with the most costly and elaborate apparatus of instruction, with no result whatever, would be deplorable. That seven years have gone in forming sleepy, indolent habits, or in learning shifty expedients for avoiding the lesson, or getting others to do it, is an evil of the greatest moment, and one which is worth many pains to cure. Let us not evade the difficulty; it is, that the best means of educating the upper classes which we have yet devised fail to attract in any measure the real interest of a large number of those who are subject to it. Whatever be the loss of the information that might have been acquired in the time, the loss of the training in real habits of industry during the very years when the nature is most plastic, most susceptible of good or evil impressions, is far greater. And until it can be said of a system of education that all who are kept under its influences learn something, and most of them learn a good deal, and many of them learn a good deal well, the work of improvement is certainly not complete. The suggestion that there should be an examination when boys enter the school, and another when they enter the university, shews at least how the school may throw back the responsibility of the boy's ignorance upon his parents, and how the college may do the same by the school. Probably the latter part of the recommendation will soon be adapted. The former is not so

easy. A boy of twelve may have been ill-taught and yet may have in him the elements of great future success; and masters will not be disposed to rigour in an examination that robs the school of some ornament. Such a test already exists in many schools, but it is not strictly applied.

II. A day was well spent last week in discussing the subject of education for the middle classes. As another commission of inquiry is about to issue on the subject of the smaller foundation schools in the country, and as its report will probably contain much information bearing on this subject, the present would be the worst moment for putting forth any scheme pretending to be mature. But it can hardly be disputed that a great need exists of schools, and especially of boarding schools, in which the son of the tradesman and the farmer may have assured to him a sound and useful education. There may be many private academies in which he may find it, and for these there will still be room. But good schools, with a governing body composed of men whose names would guarantee the best management and methods of instruction—schools that are systematically inspected and tested from time to time; schools that aim at an education as liberal and enlightened as that sought by our great public schools, only shaped for the mode of life which the pupils are to lead hereafter; schools so moderate in their expense that they do not exclude on that ground the class for which they are intended—these are really wanted in every county in England; and that great middle class, so active, so frugal, so orderly, so loyal to Queen and laws, which contributes so much by its hatred of agitation, and its refusal to be misled, to the peace and security of the country, would gratefully receive and would well requite any efforts made in that direction. Consider how the welfare of the whole country is bound up with this subject. Consider how powerfully this class acts upon those that are above and below it. Even as it is, that middle class is constantly sending up shoots into the strata above it, and the yeoman sees his son a thriving merchant or professional man, and his grandson in some office of high dignity and trust. If a nation is rich in the intelligence and energy and integrity of its sons, is it not well to send the ploughshare of education deeper into the subsoil, already so rich and prolific? Then, looking downward, how can you hope that the education of the lower classes will thrive when the class above them is jealous and suspicious of education because it does not possess it? Terrible, though contracted, is the power of the small autocrat who, in some outlying farm-house, administers the destinies of wife and children, of servants, male and female, dwelling together under his roof. If the lord of that house, for so he is, is intemperate and licentious, if he keeps his family from the house of God and from family worship, if those under his charge imitate [his] licence, or, worse still, fall under his direct temptation, it is useless to edu-

cate children in that parish that are afterwards to pass, as servants, through that fire of Moloch. It is useless to open the winter night school; such a man hates the light, and will not let his people come lest they should return, and with better knowledge, newly gained, rebuke his viciousness. Education, to be healthy, must be improved in all classes alike. A greater diffusion of education through the middle classes would help it in the lower; directly, because an educated middle-class would give more aid to their poor brethren; indirectly, because the secret jealousy, lest the poor should know more than they, would be removed. It is somewhat discouraging to hear that we are to wait for the long process of inquiry by a commission, and for the subsequent legislation that may follow, for a general effort in this direction. I should be sorry if any of the experiments now being made should be arrested for the appearance of a general Act of Parliament, which, perhaps, few of us may live to see. One plea for waiting, and no doubt an important one, is that the small endowments of the country schools may be made applicable in some way to the new middle-class schools. This raises a large question of right, into which I shall not enter at length. But let us form no undue expectations of gain from this source. It is not likely that any diversion of educational revenues from a given parish or place will be attempted until the poor of that place are provided with the means of a good national school education. I have shewn already how much we have to do before the education of the poor becomes general; and in many cases the grammar school has stood instead of a national school, and prevented the need of one from being felt. To take away the grammar school endowment would be to extinguish the education of the place. Plainly, this could not be attempted. But if the only funds set free by a fresh arrangement of the old endowments are to be the residue after the local education is provided, I do not think the amount would be large enough to render any very important help to the great work we are now considering. What is wanted is the capital to provide suitable buildings for an undertaking that may afterwards support itself. The suggestion of Mr Thring, that out of the old endowments exhibitions might be provided, tenable not merely at college, but at any higher school, is capable of most useful application; and probably this is the channel into which the superfluity of these endowments would be chiefly directed. If, then, we wait, in the hope of a fresh commission and inquiry, and report and legislation thereupon, we may be disappointed in the amount of pecuniary help; and, in the meantime, there is much in this question which is disposed of and needs no inquiry, and also much that cannot be settled by inquiry, but only by experiment, because there are no precedents. We want no assurance that education is needed by the middle-class, nor that a good commercial education can be given; on all these points a blue-book may give us

detailed information, but would add nothing to the force of our conviction. What we require to know is, whether a good school of this sort, managed by men of such a degree of intelligence as any county in England could supply, and conducted by a master and assistants such as they could always depend on securing, can be undertaken to give a thoroughly good education for a payment such as the class for whom it is meant would be able and willing to pay. This can only be answered by repeated experiments; no commission can tell us. Calculations *a priori* would be likely to mislead. They would shew us what was possible under favourable conditions; we want to know what is likely. In a good observatory every one of the astronomical staff has ascertained by repeated observations the average of his personal error—that is, the minute particle of time by which his hand may be too slow for his eye, or his eye too quick for the star, and which is found to vary in any two men, but to be pretty uniform in the same man at various times; and this personal error is always taken into account in all his observations. What is the probable personal error in the members of the staff of a middle-class school to be allowed for in all the calculations? How much is to be allowed for waste, for want of vigilance, for sudden fluctuations in numbers? These elements may make all the difference between success and ruin; but I do not see how they are to be ascertained except by actual trials. Experiments have been already made, and the results are encouraging; but for special reasons, into which I do not enter, they are not conclusive. Let us hope that long before the blue-book shall issue from the womb of time, and without waiting for the Act of Parliament, which may not issue at all, experiments of the same kind may be multiplied, so that we may be in a condition to contrast the proved success of the new education with the torpor of the old foundation schools, and may supply to Parliament a conclusive argument in favour of extending the change. Whenever that subject comes under consideration, I trust that a broad view will be taken of what are often called the rights of the poor in this matter. When travelling was tedious and difficult, and local privileges and prejudices strong, education was provided for the city or the county in which the donor's property lay. If Cumberland for its poverty was given the exclusive right in a school and college, Yorkshire was obliged to make the same kind of restriction, otherwise Cumberland would have possessed all its own and some of its neighbours'. And so the system became universal. It is now breaking down, and if it is desirable that it should pass away, as I believe it is, it is desirable that it should break down at all points at once. There are many cases where there is an endowed school in a small town which is not really used by the people, having, perhaps, twenty boys out of a population of as many thousands. The reason is plain—it gives a learned education only, as its

statutes require, and the mass of the population requires something quite different, while those who wish for a classical education go to some great school at a distance, where they can pursue their studies in a wider field and with more to stimulate emulation. The country has provided for that town railroads to take its sons to any school of their choice in a few hours. Excellent schools are brought within reach and thrown open to them: the great schools for the richer, and for the poorer professional man there are schools that specially favour the clergyman and the doctor. In every parish, probably, there is now a national school, where the poor can be taught for nothing that which they require to know; but when we propose to take this old classical school, which is no longer used as it has been, and turn it into a middle school for those whom modern changes have not yet reached, we are told that this must be left untouched as the property of the poor scholar who wants to get to the university on small means, and so to rise in life. We wish well to the poor scholar, but then he is not here; the school has been practically disused for half a century, and you have had paid in advance facilities enormously greater for your poor scholar than any he will lose. And the answer is, that, though the poor scholar is much better off elsewhere, and knows it, and goes elsewhere, we will keep this grammar school in abeyance in case our poor scholar should want it hereafter. Is not this poor scholar, whom we are calling so earnestly out of the vasty deep, and who never comes when we do call for him, very likely to be made the instrument of a great wrong towards that middle-class, who, in fact, answer most nearly to those for whom the school was intended? There never was a time, in fact, when the real poor scholar had advantages so great as in the present. I have known many cases in Oxford and Cambridge of men who, fighting with real poverty, have become fellows and instructors, useful and honoured men. The same thing is now going on. But they enter a college that the founder meant for somebody else; they win a scholarship which the founder expressly excluded them from, as born in the wrong place; and they know too well the advantages which this general break up of local restrictions has produced everywhere to go back to their own town and advocate the maintenance of the system there. I sincerely believe that at no time in our history has it been less difficult for a youth of real merit to procure for himself the best education, in whatever circumstances and position he may have been born.

III. It is no wonder that the state of female education should find a place in the deliberations of an association like this. A desire for an examination for girls of the middle and upper classes has been expressed by many whose opinion is sure to have weight. It is proposed that the so-called "Middle-class Examinations" of Oxford and Cambridge should be extended to girls' schools. As I have had some experience of these examinations, I may venture upon

the opinion that it would be difficult or impossible for the Universities to undertake this duty in addition to all that is at present incumbent on them. If the present examinations became general, so as to include every school and every pupil in the school of age to compete, the Universities would be unable probably to find time and men to conduct them. But there are other difficulties in the subject. The same examination that suffices for the boys would hardly be suitable for girls; and a different scheme suitable for the present state of female education would not be best elaborated by a University Board, or best conducted by Fellows of Colleges. The plan of such an examination should be the work of a special council, from which women should not be excluded. The experience that has made Queen's College in London so successful should be brought to bear upon it. None of us desire, I suppose, that the education of women should be roughly assimilated to that of men; that precisely the same training should be given to the man who has to struggle in the world in his business or profession, and the woman who is to be the light and solace of a home, the minister of its charities, the thoughtful mother of its children. There are now many women in the upper ranks who have given much thought to the training of their sex. There are many clergymen who have actually been employed therein. It is from these that we must expect an organized plan for examinations, rather than from the universities, which have rendered excellent service, but are not to be blamed for being unable to extend their efforts into a department which they cannot know. Mr Norris, in an able paper presented to my section, has pointed out that the mode of conducting the middle-class examinations, by collecting the candidates in one central town and examining them together for several days, would be inapplicable by its publicity to the habits of retirement to which girls are accustomed. The machinery of the Society of Arts is much more suitable. On the same day, in some hundreds of schools, the same paper is set by trusty persons to the different sets of candidates, and all the papers when completed are sent to the central office, and examined and marked. The candidate is only known to the examiner even by a number; and thus the teacher can judge, by examining the list, of the precise amount of a pupil's proficiency, while the very name and aspect of the pupil are unknown to those who have prepared the information. I have acted also as examiner in mental science to the Society of Arts, and can testify that this system works easily. But all that I feel sure of on this subject, is that a great mistake would be made if, without any attempt at an independent treatment of female education, we catch at some existing scheme of examinations for boys, and assume that it will suit both purposes. The minds of man and woman are the complement each of the other. In that mysterious union of two which has risen by degrees from a mere instinct to a

mutual education of two souls for God and for the highest duties, each married mind teaches to the other its own lesson. The strong man's strength goes furthest when it is softened by a strain of womanly tenderness, and the woman's pious dependence and fine observation and delicate tact are irradiated by the daylight of the masculine understanding, and hard experience and precise laws of duty are added on his side to the common treasure. Of two things, both created of God, it is wrong perhaps to say that either is the higher. But they are certainly distinct; they need and complete each other. And as rude times, with their physical perils, despised a womanish man, when men had to hold their own, so the highest civilisation will err if it aims at producing mannish women, for when men, weary with the world's battle, return to the cool shade of their own home, they need the calmness, the refinement, the high cultivation, the usefulness, the gentle piety which woman, as she was meant to be, knows how to afford him. The cultivation of a woman's mind cannot be carried too high, but it must be a cultivation proper to her, to her constitution, her mental gifts, her work in the world. Woman is equal to man! Yes, but equal by being herself, and not a pale copy of him. Our great living poet, in that beautiful picture of the Princess, thus shapes her aspiration, and the same thought has passed over the minds of thousands of her sex:—

"Everywhere

Two heads in council, two beside the hearth,
Two in the tangled business of the world,
Two in the liberal offices of life,
Two plummets dropt, for one to sound the abyss
Of science and the secrets of the mind,
Musician, painter, sculptor, critic, muse,
And everywhere the broad and bounteous earth
Should bear a double growth of those rare souls,
Poets whose thoughts enrich the blood of the world."

But with tears the Princess owned that she had erred from want of humility; and the blood of the world, so to speak, is ever renewed in the order of Divine Providence, by a due admixture and attempering of mental gifts from both sides. I have no doubt that the female education of the country needs sifting and reform; it is less known and examined than any kind of male education in the country, and secrecy harbours quackery. But the subject is only beginning to be attended to; it is not ripe for a system of examination. Be it remembered that in the end the examination completely fashions the education; so that people only learn that which they are likely to be asked to produce. If these are the principal subjects connected with education that emerge at this moment, the survey of the whole field is not likely to content us, although so much is being done. In the lower ranks a system approved as good fails still to make its way, and a majority of families resist or neglect it. In the middle ranks there is no settled scheme of a sound commercial education, no inspection, hardly any great schools to hold up a pattern to the private venture. In the highest

schools there is far too much of admitted failure; and yet there is a great awakening to the value of education in every rank. If there is much still undone, this is because the work is enormous rather than because the workers are slack or unwilling. Such meetings as this, such discussions as I have heard, will send us all back to our calling more deeply impressed than ever with that great national want. There is, moreover, one great encouragement. I understand by education, the training of the whole mind for the world around it, for the duties it has to discharge here, and for the services it has to perform for its great God and Saviour, to whose bosom it hopes hereafter to return. I will not debate the question how far intellectual cultivation by itself does good or harm. But the education which alone is worth any pains to secure for the country, is the mental, moral, and religious training of souls marked by God for his own. Now, in this respect there is a great improvement in every kind of schools. Everywhere religious teaching begins to be exalted greater prominence is given to it, and it takes a much more real and practical form. This is a gain indeed. This is the true education which, in opening out the treasures of the world to a young mind, shews also that the fashion of it passeth, and that our abiding home is not here. This is the education which really enhances knowledge by giving it its proper aim. This is the great object of civilisation. Before this the vices and evils of our fallen condition are scattered and flee, as the mists and shadows hasten away when the sun pursues them.

II. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—The Fellows of Balliol College have come to a resolution to admit Roman Catholic undergraduates to that society.

31st Oct.—At a meeting of the Hebdomadal Council, it was this day proposed by the Rev. the Vice-Chancellor, that in consideration of the labours of the Regius Professor of Greek, a salary of £400 a-year be paid to him. On a division this motion was lost by a majority of one.

Against—Provost of Oriel, President of St John's, President of Magdalen, Warden of All Souls, Warden of New College, Professor Heartley, Professor Mansel, Mr Michell, Mr Hansell, Mr Turner, Senior Proctor.

For—Vice-Chancellor, Dean of Christ Church, Master of Balliol, Professor Pusey, Professor Jacobson, Professor Wilson, Professor Price, Professor Bernard, Mr Eaton, Junior Proctor.

7th Nov.—The Hebdomadal Council held a meeting, when a motion to consider the best means for obtaining a permanent endowment for the Greek Chair was submitted. As this very general proposition was so framed as to exclude any bearing on the Jowett controversy, it was agreed to, and a com-

mittee, consisting of members of both parties, was appointed to conduct the inquiry.

The time-honoured custom of keeping the 5th November at Oxford by a town and gown riot was duly observed on Saturday, when both parties mustered in considerable force. Being market-day, the "town" mustered in unusual force, and in most of the skirmishes that took place the "gown" had the worst of it.

Local Examinations.—The Right Hon. Rob. Lowe, M.P., ex-Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, presented lately to the successful candidates of the Nottingham district the diplomas and certificates obtained during the year, together with the prizes contributed by local gentlemen. The Mayor of Nottingham was in the chair; and on the platform were Earl Manvers, the High Sheriff, the University Examiner, the Vicar of Nottingham, Dr Tyndall Robertson, and the local secretaries.

Mr Lowe stated his opinion that if Government interfered with middle class education, it ought to be no further than merely publishing the results of examination, which of itself would quickly test good and bad schools.

CAMBRIDGE.—*Local Examinations.*—18th Oct.—The Vice-Chancellor notified that he had received the following memorial:—

"To the Vice-Chancellor and the Senate of the University of Cambridge—

"GENTLEMEN,—As being officially engaged in, or connected with, female education, we beg respectfully to call your attention to the existing want of some publicly recognised examination for girls. We believe that this want could in no way be better supplied than by the extension to girls of the University local examinations. The representations by which the Universities were induced to accord these advantages to boys, apply with at least equal force to girls, and it appears to us that no valid objection can be urged against the admission of girls to similar benefits.

"We venture, therefore, earnestly to request that you will give your sanction to a measure by which the usefulness of the scheme for local examinations may be largely extended."

The memorial received 999 signatures from the mistresses of schools and others engaged in teaching girls, and its prayer is supported by over 100 names, among which are those of the Earl of Clarendon, Lord Brougham, Lord Lyttleton, Lord Wrottesley, the Bishop of St David's, Sir J. G. Shaw Lefevre, Sir E. Ryan, the Deans of Canterbury and Durham, Dr Acland, Mr G. Grote, and other noblemen, gentlemen, and ladies, well known for the interest they take in matters connected with education.

The authorities of the University did not propose

to the Senate any immediate action with reference to this memorial, but it is probable that a Syndicate will be appointed to consider the subject of it.

The local examinations will be given on Monday, 12th December, at the following places:—Barnstaple, Brighton, Bristol, Cambridge, Exeter, Hastings, Leeds, Liverpool, London, Lutterworth, Northampton, Norwich, Plymouth, Sheffield, Southampton, Torquay, West Buckland, Windsor, Wokinghampton.

The influence of these examinations seems to be steadily on the increase through the southern and midland counties, but it is remarkable that there are no centres north of Leeds and Liverpool.

20th Oct.—Mr William Mudd appointed Curator of the Botanic Garden. In addition to his horticultural skill, he is well known, both in this country and on the continent, as a botanist. He is the author of our best work on an obscure tribe of plants, "The Manual of British Lichens."

New Museums.—Museums for Botany and Mineralogy, and lecture-rooms for the Professors of those sciences, as well as those of Natural Philosophy, have been erected at the University, as well as a long gallery for optical researches. A very interesting series of corals, star-fishes, echini, and other invertebrate animals, collected and prepared by the late Mr Lucas Barrett, has been placed in the Museum, where it is hoped they will form the nucleus of a collection of invertebrata, while they will also perpetuate the memory of their collector, whose early death in the prosecution of scientific research was so much deplored by all who knew him.

ABERDEEN UNIVERSITY.—On Friday, the 12th ult., Earl Russell was formally installed as Lord Rector of the Aberdeen University, the office to which his Lordship was elected in January last. His Lordship delivered an eloquent address on the occasion, taking as his subject these two questions:—First, Is there any law or rule by which the decline of States is governed? and, secondly, What is the general aspect of the world at present, and does it teach us to despond?

UNIVERSITY FOR WALES.—Public meetings have been held in Carmarthenshire, to promote the establishment of high class Colleges and a University for Wales. The principal meeting was held in the county town, the Mayor presiding, when it was resolved:—"That as the Colleges and University proposed to be established are purely non-sectarian, and offer equal advantages on equal terms to all, they are suited to the circumstances and needs of the principality." It is proposed to establish two new Colleges, one in North Wales, and one in the South, and to affiliate to the University Lampeter College, Landover School, Brecon College, and the

superior old Grammar Schools. The promoters start with a fund of £50,000. It is, however, not yet decided where the colleges are to be situated, and the University to have its centre.

UNIVERSITY COUNCILS.—Three of the University Councils held their half-yearly meetings in the end of October, that of St Andrews took place last month. At the Aberdeen meeting, the principal business was to propose an assessor to represent the Council at the University court. Two candidates were named—Dr Kilgour and the Rev. Mr Mearns, Kinneff. A poll was demanded, and voting papers, returnable within twenty-one days, were issued to all the members. On a scrutiny, it was found that Mr Mearns had 185 votes, and Dr Kilgour 176, so that the former was appointed by a majority of 9. A similar contest took place in Glasgow, the rival candidates being Lord Kinloch and the Rev. Dr R. Buchanan. The voting was as follows:—For Lord Kinloch, 474; for Dr Buchanan, 859; majority for the former, 115. In Edinburgh, the Council renewed its request that the accounts of the University should be published. In St Andrews, the subject of a change in the length of the College Session, and the necessity for an entrance examination for the art's course formed the leading themes of discussion.

UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—A preliminary meeting was held at Stirling, on the 19th ult., for the purpose of constituting that town a local centre for the University examinations. There was a very large attendance of the leading citizens. After explanations received from W. S. Dalgleish, Esq., Secretary to the Examination Board, a resolution was put to the meeting, and unanimously carried, approving of steps being taken to secure for Stirling the advantages to be derived from the scheme.

III. SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE.

OPENING OF A FREE SCHOOL IN DORSETSHIRE.—Towards the end of October, the opening of a public school, built and endowed by T. H. Bastard, Esq. of Charlton Marshall, at Milldown, Dorsetshire, was celebrated. On the occasion, Mr Bastard said:—The Milldown school has now been finally opened, and I beg to say a few words respecting the reasons of my taking such a step, and on certain parts of the education to be given, which will probably be considered novelties: First, I believe that education is capable of improvement, an idea not originating in myself, but in all that is constantly said and transpiring on the subject; and whether what I have done shall turn out to be an improvement or not, at least such was one of my objects. I had no Utopian ideas of introducing a perfect system of education. One step towards improvement was all that I contemplated, and with this view only I made the con-

dition that, in addition to other usual branches of instruction, a knowledge of the structure of the human body and of physiology should be taught in the school; and to this I was led by a strong impression that such knowledge has a most beneficial effect in inducing care of that inestimable blessing health, and also carries with it other moral advantages. Another subject of instruction proposed is that of economic science, which is startling, more from its name than anything else. As yet, I believe it has only been taught to any extent in the Birkbeck schools, which have been established in London by Mr William Ellis. If I were to venture on a popular description of it, I should call it the teaching of knowledge of the means and conditions for bringing about useful ends in life. This may have reference to the value of labour and of commodities, and to the business of their sale and purchase, to the management with which a store is provided and kept for future use; and, in short, to all the transactions of life in which care for the present and forethought for the future is concerned; and, farther, to the honesty as well as profit with which these transactions are carried on. By the third clause of the endowment, children of all sects are to be admissible to the school, and religious instruction so regulated as not to cause the exclusion of any child. In conformity with this, the managers thought it prudent to confine such instruction to reading the Bible, and not to teach any catechism.

EDUCATIONAL BEQUEST.—Mr Walter Rutherford, formerly law-agent in Edinburgh, has left the sum of £1500 to the Free Church Education Scheme. This sum is to be expended on somewhat singular conditions: £1300 of it to go in sums of £10 to each of 130 Free Church male teachers, whose incomes from all sources do not exceed £40 a-year, and the remaining £200 in similar sums to 20 female teachers, whose incomes do not exceed £25 per annum. If a sufficient number of teachers cannot be found to satisfy these conditions, the residue reverts to the estate. It is almost certain that this residue will not be small, as the following extract from the last blue book will shew:—“Average salary of Free Church certificated masters (885 in number), £90; uncertificated, £86. Mistresses, certificated (80 in number), £53; uncertificated, £26. The bulk of the bequest will therefore fall to teachers in schools not under inspection.

ABERDEEN SCHOOLS.—In accordance with custom the whole of the schools under the control of the Town Council of Aberdeen, were examined in the last week of October, when, for the first time, certificates of merit, instead of prizes, were awarded to deserving pupils.

EDUCATION AND STRIKES.—The *Times* has pub-

lished lately one of S. G. O.'s forcible letters on the above subject, and discussed the topic in a leader. The text of the letter is a wide-spread disposition amongst capitalists to withdraw their subscriptions from educational work, under the belief that the disposition to combine amongst workmen was fostered by the education they had received. On this point, Mr Osborne labours to shew, that though it might be true in relation to agricultural labourers, yet it was a suicidal policy on the part of employers to limit the education of operatives. In degree, just as engineers can have no resting-place for their mind, so the operative called upon to carry out constant improvements, must have a mind trained to acquire new knowledge, and always be aiming high. The country labourer, on the other hand, is best fitted for his simple duty when he has learnt to do what his master tells him. There is less need for thought in his work, and, as a consequence, we find his schooling soon forgotten. The *Times* sums up the question with a reference to the strike in the Staffordshire coal trade:—"If iron cannot be produced more cheaply in Staffordshire, the iron trade will go elsewhere, as it has already departed from Sussex; and the colliers, in their obstinate determination to part with nothing, may lose the whole. If the masters are right, it can be shewn by reason that they are so; and if they wish, therefore, to justify their conduct to the men, it is necessary that their men should be intelligent and educated. Education alone can enable men to perceive the issue which is hanging in the balance."

WORKING CLASSES INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION, AGRICULTURAL HALL, LONDON.—Earl Russell opened this exhibition, 17th October last, in the presence of an immense concourse of people. He was supported by the Rev. Dan. Wilson, Vicar of Islington; Mr Bodkin, Assistant-Judge, the Secretary of the Society of Arts; Digby Seymour, M.P.; George Cruikshank; Mr Watts, Honorary Secretary, representatives of the church, of the judges, of the bar, of science and art, of the House of Lords, and of the House of Commons, of temperance, and of the working-classes, combined to recognise the industrial and educational value of the movement here inaugurated. The exhibition contained many master-pieces of handicraft made by amateurs out of business hours; and, amongst other things, trophies of juvenile industry, in the form of prizes, certificates, and other honourable distinctions gained at school, and in the Government science classes. The department of science and art had an excellent series of the proximate principles of food and ana-

lyses of plants and animals. As many as 30,000 visitors patronised the exhibition—almost daily, which was made really a working-class Exhibition—by an admission fee of 2d. Band of Hope and Tonic Sol-fa concerts also added to the interest of the show, which, after nearly a month of unexampled success, was brought to a close by the Right Hon. the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

WORCESTER DIOCESAN TRAINING COLLEGE.—The annual meeting was held at Saltley—Lord Lyttleton presiding. Earl Harrowby, the Bishops of Hereford and Worcester, and a goodly assemblage of the clergy were present, as well as Sir John Pakington, and the Right Hon. C. B. Adderly, M.P. The chief subject of discussion was the government modification of aid with regard to endowment, and Sir John Pakington, M.P., moved a resolution, calling upon the diocese for extra contributions to meet the diminished aid from the Committee of Council.

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

The Professorship of Greek in the Galway College, vacant by the appointment of Professor Nesbitt, to the Latin Chair at Belfast, has been conferred upon Mr D'Arcy Thompson, classical master in the Edinburgh Academy, and author of "Day Dreams of a Schoolmaster."

The Rev. Thos. Russell, of St John's College, has been appointed to the Head Mastership of the Brackley School.

The Rev. Ogle R. Winkle, M.A., from the Grammar School, Uppington, has been appointed Head Master of King James's Grammar School, Bridgewater.

The Rev. Charles Fryer, Eastburn, M.A., Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge, Vice-Principal of St Mark's College, Chelsea, has been appointed Principal of the Durham Diocesan Training College.

The Rev. H. P. Kendall, M.A., Head Master of Batley Grammar School, Yorkshire, has been appointed Head Master of Hampton Lucy Grammar School, Warwickshire.

H. Granger Earnshaw, Esq., William Hope Fortescue, Esq., and James Ball Lakeman, Esq., have been appointed Sub-Inspectors of Factories.

Earl Granville, President of the Council, has appointed the Rev. Chas. Wm. King, M.A., of Trinity College, Oxford, to be her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for the diocese of Durham.

The Rev. H. B. Barry, late Michel Fellow of Queen's, Oxford, has been appointed H. M. Inspector of Schools for the diocese of Somerset.



Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—French educationists are complaining loudly that in a budget of £80,000,000 sterling, education figures for only £760,000, of which sum scarcely one third is spent on *elementary* schools. The whole amount would be represented by a poll-tax of fivepence a-year on the whole population, twopence out of the five going to *elementary* schools. It must be added, however, that from the departmental (*Ang. county*) treasuries an equal contribution is obtained for the elementary schools, so that the total contribution in support of elementary schools is at the rate of fourpence a-head from every man, woman, and child in France.

The directors of all the primary Normal Schools in France are henceforth to make certain meteorological observations, and report them to the Royal Observatory. Such observations have, it appears, been made for seven years in the four Normal Schools in the district of Nancy, and the principal results obtained have been deemed worthy of publication.

The department (county) of the Tarn has established an annual competition, one year among all the *pupils*, and the next among all the *teachers*, of its public schools, for prizes of about thirty shillings in value, given in books. This year the teachers competed: almost all of them, upwards of 800, sent in an essay on a pedagogic subject previously prescribed; and of these essays ten were selected for prizes, and ten for honourable mention.

To prevent the disuse and final loss of whatever acquirements are made in elementary schools, the Minister of Public Instruction proposes to establish in each district two prizes, to be awarded, one to the boy or girl of fifteen years of age, and the other to the lad of eighteen years of age, engaged in manual pursuits, who shall have preserved best, and extended most, the acquirements made at school; the prize in each case to consist of a small sum in the Savings' Bank.

So successful were the popular lectures delivered in the Sorbonne and elsewhere in Paris last winter, that the Minister of Public Instruction has issued a circular in which he calls upon the Professors throughout France to imitate the example. He says:—"There are in France 713 professorial chairs, of which 151 are in Paris, and 562 in the departments; and during nine months of the year these 713 professors are engaged in imparting what learning they have themselves acquired. A multitude of doctors in literature, in science, and in law, form the reserve of the grand educational army; and all united, constitute an immense power for enlighten-

ing and refining the mind of the nation. But this power acts only at certain points, and on comparatively few persons." Then he adds, that among all classes there is an eager desire for knowledge; and that this desire would be best met by the professors giving courses of popular lectures in their own towns, and in the smaller ones adjacent, on the invitation of the municipal authorities, whose business it should be to make all the arrangements as to time, place, and remuneration. Thus the municipal authorities of France are invited by the Minister of Public Instruction to organise, for the benefit of the intelligent, what the intelligent in our communities organise for themselves in connection with Mechanics' Institutions, Athenaeums, and the like. The town of La Rochelle is already honourably mentioned for having voted £24 to defray the expense of a course of lectures on literature, in addition to a course on chemistry previously established.

PRUSSIA.—The recently published official statistics of the *elementary* schools in Prussia for the years 1859–1861, correct a statement that has been accepted in educational circles for years, viz., that in Prussia, notwithstanding the law of compulsory attendance at school, 600,000 children of an age to receive instruction, nevertheless receive none. The actual attendance at *elementary* schools is as follows:—

1,775,888	.	.	Protestant.
1,063,805	.	.	Roman Catholic.
30,063	.	.	Jewish.
6,090	.	.	Dissenting.
84,021	.	.	Private Schools.

2,959,857

In the whole population of Prussia, 18,476,500, there ought to be, at the rate of 17 per cent. of children receiving instruction of some sort somewhere, 3,090,294, a number in excess of the preceding by only 180,437; and this excess is accounted for almost, if not altogether, by the numbers attending schools not classed as *elementary*.

According to the same statistics, the average annual salary of the elementary teacher is, in Berlin, £62; in provincial towns, £42; in country, £27.

The Government supplies only about 1-18th of all that expenditure; one-half of it arising from endowments and local contributions, and the rest from school pence.

RUSSIA.—According to the new organisation of

the Russian elementary schools, the subjects of instruction are to be religion, *i.e.* the catechism and sacred history, reading, writing, and, whenever possible, church music. The object of these schools is declared to be to strengthen throughout the nation the principles of religion and morality, and to diffuse useful elementary knowledge. Children are admitted irrespective of their parents' religion; and, except in Sunday schools, children of both sexes may be taught together, whenever the establishment of a separate school for each sex is impracticable.

By some the new organisation is considered more liberal, and by others less so, than the old. The Germans, and the Polish Jews, whose mother-tongue is German, strangely mingled by the poorer sort with Hebrew and Polish, are naturally pleased with it, because it implies the abandonment of Wielopolski's scheme for denationalising the Germans, by forbidding the use of their language in elementary schools.

BADEN.—In a recent number of the *Museum*, some account was given of the International School at St Germain-en-Laye, near Paris. Germany has now got an international school at Bruchsal, in Baden, a walled and well-built old town of scarcely 10,000 inhabitants, on the Salzach, fourteen miles from Karlsruhe.

Neither of these institutions is international in the sense of the essays called forth in 1862, by M. Barbier, the Clermont manufacturer's prize of £200; that is, they do not follow a certain programme in common with similar institutions in other countries, so as to enable pupils to pass from the international school of one country to that of another without inconvenience. The international schools of St Germain-en-Laye and Bruchsal are independent of each other, and call themselves international merely because they seek to have their pupils in equal numbers from France, Germany, and England; and, to use the polyglott element so obtained, for the purpose of facilitating the acquisition of one another's languages by the pupils. In other respects the two institutions differ considerably: at St Germain-en-Laye the ancient classics are made a principal study, whereas at Bruchsal they do not appear in the regular programme of study, though they may be pursued under private tutors.

The international school at Bruchsal has been founded by a joint-stock company with a capital of £15,000, and under the sanction of Government. It can accommodate eighty boarders; the age recommended for entering is from twelve to sixteen,

and the course is of three years' duration. During the first two years the pupils are divided according to nationality; those of the first year into two classes only, because it is not found expedient to begin more than one language at once, and those of the second into four, thus:—

First Year—

Beginners' French Class for Germans.

Beginners' German Class for French and English Pupils.

Second Year—

Advanced French Class for Germans.

Advanced German Class for French and English Pupils.

Beginners' French Class for English Pupils.

Beginners' English Class for French and Germans.

The pupils of the third year are classified, not according to nationality, but according to destination in life, as commercial or literary. Those in the commercial class, besides carrying on their lingual and other studies, play at shopkeeping, trading, banking, &c., buying, selling, and keeping accounts in the three languages they know, and passing through their fingers the very coins proper to the countries in which these languages are respectively spoken. Those in the literary class study the masterpieces in prose and verse of the three languages they know.

Only four hours a-day are spent in lessons from masters; the rest of the time is devoted to recreation, study, and mutual instruction. Excellent results are said to be obtained by this mutual instruction, which consists in assigning to the more intelligent pupils of each nation a small number of a different nation, to whom they act as monitors under inspection, and in rooms specially adapted for the purpose. The monitor reads a sentence of his own language, and makes his pupils read it till they do so with a correct pronunciation; or he dictates a sentence and corrects the errors in spelling; and to these exercises, which he can conduct even in ignorance of the language spoken by his pupils, many others are added as soon as he and his pupils have a language in common. As soon as possible, generally in half a year after the commencement, all subjects are taught in a foreign language; and not a little is picked up from one another by the boys in their walks and in the playground. By all these means it is believed that each pupil will, at the end of three years, have acquired a mastery over two foreign languages, besides having made fair progress in all the usual branches of a non-classical education.



Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editors, before the 18th of each Month.]

KELSO—BORDER ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLMASTERS.—The third general meeting of this Association was held in the Queen's Head Hotel, Kelso, on October 29—Mr Dickson, St Boswell's, in the chair. Eleven new members were added to the list of enrolment, which now numbers nearly eighty. Several gentlemen were also elected honorary members. Three papers on important subjects were read, viz.—1st, "On the aspects of the educational question in Scotland," by Mr Hunter, Grammar School, Kelso; 2d, "On primary education in France," by Mr Mounsey, of the Burgh School, Jedburgh; and, 3d, "The effect of the Government system of grants on the status of the Schoolmasters in England," by Mr Scott, of the Episcopal School, Jedburgh. Mr Hunter, in his paper, described the unsatisfactory position of the teaching profession in Scotland, and the injury done to the middle-class schools by the admission of students to the universities without any proper entrance examination. Towards the conclusion of his paper he drew attention to the Royal Commission, and pressed on teachers the great importance of taking advantage of this opportunity to bring their claims prominently before the public. His suggestions, which were adopted by the meeting, were, that the superintendence of schools should be required to rest in a central board in Edinburgh, with the presidents of the Educational Institute and parish schoolmasters members for the time being *ex officio*, the examination of schools to be effected by a competent staff of inspectors; that every public teacher should require to have a diploma from a proper licensing body; that the number of schools should be proportioned to the population; and that, to economise the teaching power, schools in populous districts should be united, with teachers for separate branches at properly remunerating salaries. An able paper was also read by Mr Malcolm, the secretary, on "Elementary Grammar." Votes of thanks were unanimously tendered to the readers. The members dined together after the meeting.

ARBROATH FREE CHURCH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The ordinary meeting of this Association was held at Arbroath on the 13th ult.—Mr Gilbert, of Frickheim, read a paper on "Our Town and Country Schools and Schoolmasters." In contrasting the advantages and disadvantages of the teachers of town schools with those of country schools, he seemed to think that the former, on the whole, had the best of it. The essay possessed much fulness and originality,

and gave rise to an animated discussion. Mr Gray, Bonnington, was appointed next essayist.

SCOTTISH UNITARIAN ASSOCIATION.—At the annual meeting of this Association, held in Glasgow, the following resolution was approved of:—"That any national system of education proposed to be established in Scotland must recognise the fact that there are forms of religious faith existing in the country not in harmony with the Standards of the Westminster Confession, and must, therefore, contain no enactment to compulsory territorial views, and that a Committee be appointed to act, with other bodies, in Scotland, favourable to unsectarian education, in urging these views on the attention of her Majesty's government, and the liberal members of parliament."

CERTIFICATED TEACHERS OF ABERDEEN.—A general meeting of the certificated teachers of Aberdeen was held on the 22d October, to compare the results of the first examination of their schools under the Revised Code, and to consider several other points on which they desire to give evidence before the Royal Commission. As to results of examination, it was found, (1.) that about one-third fewer scholars have been examined in October than would have been examined in June, if the schools had been inspected then; (2.) that many were absent on the day of examination without good reason; (3.) that many in the first standard failed through fear, in some cases being unable even to speak; (4.) that a great many in the first standard, in several schools, were not presented, the teachers believing them to be too young to undergo individual examination; (5.) that the requirements of the first and second standards are too high for children of six or seven years of age. After considering in detail the points in which the Revised Code is unsuitable for Scotland, the meeting took up the subject of the "Essentials of a National System for Scotland." The points urged embraced nearly all specified in the last number of the *Museum*, with others referring to tenure of office, retiring allowances, proper assistance in schools, the time when examination of teachers should take place, &c. It was resolved to memorialise the Commissioners on these points, and to request that they be allowed to give evidence thereon before them.

TEACHERS IN FIFE AND KINROSS.—A meeting of the teachers in public schools in these counties was

held at Ladybank on the 12th inst. After passing a series of resolutions, declaring the unsuitableness of the Revised Code, and their satisfaction at the appointment of the Commission, the meeting resolved "to take means to procure all the information possible on educational matters." They then appointed ten gentlemen as delegates to the Education Commission.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES, EDINBURGH BRANCH.—A meeting of this local Association was held on the 19th ult.—Mr Barclay, Leith, president, in the chair. Mr Taylor, Liberton, had agreed to lecture, but was absent from indisposition. His lecture was therefore read by Mr Pryde, the Secretary. His subject was "Reminiscences of the school," in which he very graphically described and illustrated by telling anecdotes, the difficulties a teacher has to encounter from the stupidity and defective home-training of children, the apathy of parents, and the domineering of school-committees. A hearty vote of thanks was awarded to Mr Taylor for his excellent address. It was announced that the Royal Commissioners had applied to the Secretary for the names of certain members to be examined before the Commission. The meeting were strongly of opinion that the General Committee of Management should be summoned to decide on the parties who should represent the

Institute, and a requisition to summon it was agreed to.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE—GLASGOW BRANCH.—On Saturday the 19th ult., Professor Nichol, of the Glasgow University, delivered a very interesting and able lecture to this Association on "The Laws of Beauty in Style." Mr Dickie, of St David's School, presided, and there was a large attendance. A cordial vote of thanks was awarded to the Professor for his admirable lecture.

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS, QUEEN SQUARE, BLOOMSBURY.—The usual monthly meeting of the College was held on the evening of the second Wednesday in the month, when an educational paper was read, followed by discussion. The meeting of the Senate took place on the Saturday following, for the election of members and other routine business.

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, NORMAL COLLEGE, BOROUGH ROAD.—The quarterly meeting was held at the Training College, as above, under the presidency of J. C. Curtis, Esq., B.A., Principal of the College, on Saturday, 5th November last. The paper discussed was entitled "The Schoolmaster of the present day, the Man, and his Mission."

The Month.

THE LATE DAVID STOW.—A renowned educationist has recently been taken from among us. Mr Stow was educated for a merchant, but his attention was early turned to the educational improvement of the masses by Dr Chalmers, then in the zenith of his fame. He opened a Sabbath-school in the Saltmarket, Glasgow, but he soon found that the little he could do on the one day was rendered nugatory by the counter influences of the rest of the week. Feeling his way, he unfolded his views in his "Training System" and "Hints to Bible-Teaching and Training," the former of which has passed through many editions. Convinced that his system could not be fully carried out without thoroughly trained and equipped teachers, he was mainly instrumental in establishing a Normal School in Glasgow—the parent of both the Training Institutions at present in that city. This school soon began to supply teachers both for Scotland and England, and it was stated by the late Marquis of Lansdowne, that all the educational improvements worth

mentioning that of late years have appeared in England, can be easily traced to Glasgow. Mr Stow was a man of warmhearted generous sympathies, a devout and earnest Christian, and one who succeeded in imparting his own enthusiasm and earnestness to the young men with whom he came in contact. The announcement of his loss will be felt by many a teacher in Britain like that of a personal friend.

EDUCATION COMMISSION.—The Scottish Schools' Commission commenced its sittings on the 14th ult., in the Parliament House, Edinburgh. All the members, with the exception of Lords Belhaven and Jerviswoode, were present. Considerable regret has been expressed that the Commission has determined to make its sittings private. Unquestionably, had the evidence been published as it was given, the Commissioners might have had the opportunity of knowing the bent of the public mind on the subject. As it is, the community will get the evidence and the recommenda-

tions founded on it, at one and the same time. The investigation is to be of a sufficiently extensive character. The Commission is "to enquire into the schools of Scotland, and, in particular, (1.) Parochial schools; (2.) Burgh schools; (3.) Schools receiving grants from funds voted by Parliament; (4.) Middle-class schools, and others, not being adventure schools, and not receiving grants from funds voted by Parliament; (5.) Normal and Training schools; (6.) Adventure schools, in as far as you, our said Commissioners, may consider material, and to report generally to us in regard to the same; and, in particular, to report your opinion as to whether the funds voted by Parliament are applied to Scotland in the way most beneficial to the interests of the people, and to make any suggestions in regard to the application thereof, or in regard to the state of the said schools, and the management and emoluments thereof, which may appear to you calculated to improve the education of the people of Scotland." The first day's sittings were occupied by the examination of Mr Gordon, Senior Inspector of Established Church Schools, Dr Cumming, who occupies the same position in Free Church ones, and Messrs Gray and Lawrie, the secretaries of the two Education Committees. They have since examined a considerable number of clerical representatives of the two leading religious communions. The Educational Institute of Scotland, and the General Association of Free Church Teachers have received notice that the Commissioners would be glad to examine parties nominated by them. Both these bodies have had meetings on the subject, and by the time this is in the hands of our readers, have, no doubt, selected competent men to represent them. The Aberdeen Certificated Teachers have also memorialised the Commission to be heard, and have drawn out some very sensible and important suggestions. A similar course has been adopted by the brethren in Fife and Kinross, although we cannot help remarking that

ten delegates from one district will probably be more than the Commission would think of examining.

PHYSIOLOGY IN SCHOOLS.—Our readers will notice with interest an account in our Educational Intelligence of the opening of a Free School in Dorsetshire. The gentleman who has built and endowed it, has made the teaching of physiology and economics imperative. In doing this we think he has acted rightly. There cannot be a doubt that these subjects should form part of the course of instruction given to every human being. We think, however, at the same time, that comparatively little is done for the introduction of these branches of study into schools generally, by their introduction into one or two schools here and there. Nay, it is possible that injury might arise. Everything depends on the real success with which physiology and economics are taught. Now this again depends on the character of the teachers. If the teachers know their subjects thoroughly, and if they, at the same time, know the nature of young minds, they will be able to present physiological and economical facts and experiences in such a way as to give real instruction, and to produce permanently beneficial effects. But if they do not know how to teach, their instructions will most likely be permanently injurious. Mr Bastard, and those gentlemen who are eager to introduce these sciences into school, will never be able to effect their benevolent object until they devise some plan of making teachers thoroughly acquainted with physiology and economics, and, at the same time, with the laws of the evolution of the mind. All school reformers must direct their attention to the teacher. If they can get hold of the right man properly trained for his work, success is sure. If the teacher is not properly trained, and consequently unfit for his work, the best systems will utterly fail.



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THE END OF INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION.



AUGUSTINE, in the tenth book of his *Confessions*, remarks that men roam over the earth in search of wonders, admiring lofty mountains, vast waves, broad rivers, the circuit of the ocean, and even the motions of the stars, while they totally neglect themselves, the greatest marvel of all. The remark is as applicable to our own days as it was to those of the great theologian. If any one were to fall in with a machine which he had never seen before, he would examine it with the greatest care, and he would task his mind to the utmost in order to ascertain its use. We are ourselves wonderfully constructed machines, and something more than machines; and perfectly plain it is that our Creator had definite purposes in our construction. Yet how comparatively seldom do we find in the present day inquiries into this most important of subjects. In this respect our philosophies are behind those of the Greeks and Romans. Ancient philosophy struggled, above all things, to throw light on the meaning and purpose of life; and perhaps there is no more instructive chapter in that most instructive of books, the *Stromata* of Clemens Alexandrinus, than that in which he details the opinions of Stoics and Epicureans, Plato and Academics, and a whole host of separate philosophers, in regard to the aim and end of life. Into this great question, however, we do not intend to enter. Our subject is the aim and end of intellectual education, and we discuss the final end of the entire man only so far as it is absolutely necessary to look at man as a whole before we can do justice

to one part of his nature. At the same time, we earnestly advise all teachers to have this subject continually in their minds. If they wish to avoid being one-sided, if they desire to bring out the natures of their pupils in a harmonious proportion of powers, and if they are to give each subject of instruction and each mode of action its proper value, they must continually keep in view the final destiny of man, and the purpose for which he was made.

Expressing our ideas in as few words as possible, we should say that, looking at the matter objectively, man was made to exhibit the character of his Creator as perfectly as his constitution will allow him. He is the highest representative of God on earth; and in proportion as he is like God, as even the heathen Plato maintained, does he realise the purpose of his being. But we have to look at the matter subjectively also, for the difference between God and man is infinite. And in this respect man's highest aim is absolute submission, an entire and unlimited surrender of himself to God. He is possessed of a body made by God; and in regard to it his aim must be to observe with rigorous exactness the laws which he ascertains to have been laid down for it by God, and to use the body for the purposes for which it was intended. He has intellectual powers, and these he must cultivate, that they may attain that activity, and perform that work, for which he believes God gave them. He has a capability of feeling and acting, both in regard to himself and in regard to others; and both feelings and actions are to be absolutely regulated by what he regards

as God's will. And above all, he is ever to be permeated by a profound feeling of reverence and love for that great being who made him. In one word, he is to love God with all his strength, and his neighbour as himself. This exposition of man's aims and purpose will be set down by some as commonplace. No doubt it is; but if we could only fathom its depths, if we could only realise in ourselves all that is included in it, happy should we be. Others again will entirely deny its correctness. With them we cannot wait to reason. But if our exposition has a shadow of truth in it, then the body is the servant of the soul, the intellectual powers are the servants of man's moral nature, and the whole being of man works well only when the Supreme Being is acknowledged as supreme ruler in all things.

We set down the intellectual powers then as given to us for moral and religious purposes. And the highest function which they can serve is the increase and direction of that supreme love to God, and that strong love to man, which are the highest developments of man's nature. Before attempting, however, to evolve what is implied in this function, we can look at the intellectual powers by themselves. For we can well suppose that a definite aim may be assigned to their cultivation apart from their relations to the other parts of man's nature. Thus the body is at present an essential part of man. It is also in a subordinate position. Yet we can assign health as the definite aim after which we are to strive in regard to it, conscious of this, that whatever service it will render the soul, it will render that service best when in a state of full and vigorous health.

Now, how should we define the normal or highest state of the intellectual powers? In answering this question, we cannot adduce arguments for our opinion. The standard of value here is the general conclusion to which most educated men have come, or may be expected to come. In reality, the matter can be determined only by a long series of inductions, conducted often unconsciously by men of different nations and periods, and the ultimate result will then be received as if it were an absolutely certain and indisputable fact. We have not reached this stage yet; and, consequently, any opinion we may hold must be liable to objection.

We should make the perfection or highest state of the intellectual powers consist in three things: the amount of attention with which the mind can contemplate one subject in all its aspects; the ease with which it can hold in its grasp the most abstract thoughts; and the range and intensity of interest which it possesses in truth, and espe-

cially in the highest kinds of truth. These three things perhaps invariably run parallel with each other; and where the one is found, we may expect the other two. It is the possession of these three qualities, intense attention, thorough grasp of all details and ideas, and intense interest, that makes a man capable of extending the boundaries of knowledge. He becomes the great scientific discoverer or the great philosopher. The majority of mankind have generally reckoned men possessed of such powers as exhibiting the highest capabilities of human nature, as far as intellect is concerned. Aristotle and Newton may be taken as among the best examples. The order in which we acquire knowledge is in harmony with our assertions. We first acquire knowledge by direct contact with individual objects in nature. Gradually we grasp these objects in our mind. But it is only when we come to reflect over these individual objects, and hold them as it were beside each other, that we find out their various relations, that we come to get unities and discover connections and order where none are apparent to the common eye. If we call this stage of knowledge the scientific, meaning by scientific the perception of laws and order amidst all the phenomena of nature and man, we must set down this as the last and the highest stage of knowledge. To the individual man who possesses this knowledge, or rather this power of knowing, it brings the greatest amount of pleasure which intellectual exertion can bestow; and his especial work among his fellow-men, as far as intellect is concerned, is to extend the boundaries of human knowledge.

Having ascertained the highest stage of man's intellectual powers taken by themselves, we must turn now to the whole man, and see how the whole mind works. We shall take a simple example. A child sees an apple. What takes place? The child has a perception of some qualities. This is the intellectual side of the mind's action. But the child does not rest here. He also is pleased with the sight of the apple. He tastes it, and the taste gives him pleasure. But the apple vanishes. And what remains? There is left in the child's mind a desire for another apple, a desire which may lead to a volition. An apple, therefore, to the child is an object of perception, of delight (feeling), and of desire, possibly leading to action. And if we were to speak of a child knowing the apple, we should make a great mistake if we did not include in that knowledge its feeling of pleasure and desire. This kind of knowledge we shall call concrete. It differs from the scientific in this, that it includes the feelings and the desires. The scientific, for special pur-

poes eliminates these elements. It wishes to see all things in a dry light. It therefore takes no note of feelings and desires, except as they become objects of perception. Now it is plain that this concrete knowledge is in reality truer than the scientific. In concrete knowledge we know objects in the totality of the impressions which they are calculated to produce. Truth, beauty, and goodness are seen and felt in their actually indivisible unity. It is this concrete knowledge of things and men, therefore, as they act upon us, producing perceptions, feelings, and desires, which may lead us up to greater love of God and greater love of man. And even when scientific knowledge has been acquired, and there is scientific power within a man, he must unite the perception or the idea with its normal feeling and desire before it can profoundly move him.

Now, though we regard the scientific stage as the highest stage in intellectual exertion, we must yet regard it as subordinate and subservient to this concrete knowledge: for the one is the evolution of one part of man's nature, the other is the evolution of his whole nature. And the majority of mankind, we take it, are again on our side. The highest stage of this concrete knowledge is when a man at one and the same time sees the object as he ought to see it, feels in regard to it as he ought, and has the exactly appropriate desire awakened. We reckon this man the man of keen sympathy, of deep insight. Who are those men? They are our great poets: Homer, Milton, Shakespeare, and the like; and we regard Shakespeare, for instance, as having a deeper knowledge of human nature than Kant or Hume; and we reckon our greatest poets as more unique and worthy of higher honour than philosophers. To speak more generally, it is literature that gives expression to this concrete knowledge.

We have thus two great representatives of knowledge, science and literature. We assign to science the exhibition of man's greatest achievements in the department of pure thought. To literature we assign the function of exhibiting the whole character of nature and man in the complex unity of thought, feeling, and desire.

If this account of science and literature be correct, then it is plain that man's first and his ultimate education must be through that concrete knowledge which literature represents; but that it is absolutely necessary for breadth and depth to submit this concrete knowledge to the penetrating gaze of science, especially if new truths are to be elicited, or old truths presented in new relations. This also has to be observed, that there can be no really scientific knowledge unless there

be a compact mass of concrete observations and reflections. Sometimes scientific knowledge is given to minds which have not accumulated the proper number of accurate observations, but then these people simply know about laws. The laws themselves they do not know, they do not feel; and the knowledge about these laws remains like undigested food, which does no good itself, and prevents healthy food from entering.

We have been looking merely at the subjective or formal end of instruction. We designate it in a general way as power, but we are apt to commit a great mistake in thus exclusively contemplating one side. For we know nothing of the power of the mind apart from its exercise on individual subjects. Form and matter are here inseparably united. It is the mind that gives the form, but we cannot conceive it as acting without giving form to something. The power of the mind is, therefore, not a thing ever separated in fact from its acts. If we could suppose a mind trained by chess, and nothing else, to the closest attention, it would certainly not be a cultivated mind. It would be ignorant of all that it is most essential for a man to know. Again, if we were to conceive a mind trained in arithmetic alone, it might be full of arithmetical associations, marvellously apt in arithmetical performances; but ignorant of faith, love, hope, of nature and man, the being possessed of such a mind would be a babe in true knowledge. And, therefore, before we can define the true aim and end of instruction, we must determine what are those subjects in which a man must be trained in order to attain his highest intellectual excellence. Now these subjects are those which are most necessary for the full development of his individual life in the circumstances and age in which he is placed. These subjects, however, may not all have the same value, and, again, we must have recourse to the general opinion of cultivated men, in regard to the respective grades of value. We must believe that there is a normal value, that a man, if properly cultivated, will come to feel that value, and that this value, by being felt by other cultivated men, will be ultimately recognised by all.

Still a difficulty might arise here. It may be asked, Might not one class of studies produce the highest intellectual excellence, and might not another be the most necessary and the most valuable? Can we be sure of the coincidence of the value of studies with their capability of training the mind? We should imagine that most at least will agree in thinking that it is extremely unlikely that there should be any divergence here. If the Creator has marked out a high ideal of intellec-

tual perfection after which we are to strive, it is surely probable that the path to it will lie amongst those spheres of knowledge in which it is at once most necessary and most ennobling for him to exercise himself. Investigation into the nature of these studies, we believe, leads to the same conclusion, and so convinced are we of it, that if any one were to maintain that a study had no real relation to the great purposes of life, but merely increased the mental power, we should very much doubt the latter part of the assertion.

What, then, are those important and ennobling studies? First, there is a knowledge of man's body, of the various actions which are necessary to keep it in health, and of the actions which are detrimental to health. This involves in it a knowledge of the external world around the individual, and its influence on the body. This knowledge is absolutely necessary, but it is not a knowledge in itself of high value. Herbert Spencer has asserted exactly the opposite of this. He affirms that, as being most necessary, it is most valuable. But we think he has been misled by his principle that that without which another thing cannot take place is more valuable than that other thing. In this way the pedestal is of more consequence than the statue, the foundation than the house, the feet than the head. On the contrary, it will, we think, be found that those knowledges which are conditions of other knowledges, derive their real value from these other knowledges. And while, therefore, we allow that a knowledge of the body is absolutely necessary in every case, we do not regard the man who possesses such knowledge as having reached the highest stage of intellectual development.

The next essential knowledge is that of the mind of man, in its individual and social action. Every one should be exercised in understanding himself, and in understanding those around him and his relations to them. This knowledge is obtained originally through observation of one's self and intercourse with men. In addition to these means are now added books.

And lastly, there is the knowledge of God. This knowledge is to be obtained through his works and his revelation. But as the principal and representative work of God on earth is man, and as the means of knowing God in revelation are the same as one class of the means by which we know man, the truest way to know God is to know man thoroughly.

These three classes of knowledge are all that it is essential for man to know. To express our idea by a personal application, we should say that the subjects which should demand attention from an

Englishman's mind, are his own body and the influence of the climate, soil, &c., of England on the body; his mental constitution and the nature of the social fabric of which he is a member, its laws, and as throwing light on these and similar matters, its history; and last, and highest of all, a knowledge of God. He should know these concretely, but if he attains sufficient intellectual cultivation, he should know them scientifically, or in other words, he should know physiology and the laws of health, anthropology, sociology, and theology. In any course of education, therefore, through which an English boy goes, he misses the great object of his education, if he does not know these subjects concretely, if he cannot regulate his own body, if he is ignorant of the laws and tone of feeling, of the institutions and history of his own country, and if he does not know his God.

We conclude this exceedingly imperfect exposition of the aim and end of intellectual education, by a few supplementary remarks, principally of a practical nature. And first we draw attention more explicitly to the circumstance that a knowledge of books is not an end of education but a means. A man may be really cultivated without an acquaintance with Milton and Shakspeare. Our knowledge is based on our individual observations and experiences, and our concrete knowledge of man is derived originally from the phenomena which occur in ourselves and in our intercourse with other men. Books help us to widen this intercourse and to bring us into contact with the greatest and noblest of our race. And therefore they are of eminent value as means. But we must ever keep in mind that they are only means, and that when we come to look upon a knowledge therein as the end of education, we commit the same mistake which the miser does when he loves the gold apart from its uses. This mistake is more frequently committed than is generally supposed.

The second remark we make to obviate a misconception that may possibly arise from the equivocal use of the word science. Science is often used to denote a knowledge of the external world, and the study of science in this sense is frequently contrasted with the study of languages. A double error is thus committed. For, in the first place, literature often gives a truer idea of nature than science strictly so called. There is more real insight into nature and her operations in most of Wordsworth's poems than in many a treatise on Natural Science. And in the second place, the study of languages is generally conducted scientifically. The principles of grammar are really inductions. The phenomena of languages

are as real facts as the phenomena of the external world, and grammar tries to group the former as truly as natural history attempts to group the latter. The real contrast, as we have seen, lies between the scientific and the concrete apprehension of phenomena, and we gain knowledge concretely, not in the acquisition of languages, but in the thorough appreciation and understanding of the master spirits who have used the languages.

But this leads us further to remark that the study of the external world, either concretely or scientifically, never can be the main study of man. We have to pursue the study of the external world for two objects: to ascertain its action on our health, either directly or as furnishing the means of living; and to ascertain the revelation which God has given in it of himself. The first

object, as we have seen, is important as an absolute necessity, but is not of the highest value in itself. As far as the second is concerned, the external world does give a revelation, and therefore we are bound to examine it both concretely and scientifically, but this revelation is not so complete nor so deeply interesting as the revelation which He has given in His greatest work on earth, man. The study of man, therefore, both in its relation to himself and to his God, must be the main study. Nature forms a grand and magnificent background, but it is only a background. The centre of the picture is man, and consequently his education is to be conducted mainly through literature and the processes by which literature is produced, and it is to be crowned by a scientific investigation into the laws of man's being, individual and social.



HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF STORY-TELLING.*



WHEN first the delivery of an inaugural lecture was proposed to me, the subject that naturally and immediately suggested itself was the time-honoured but somewhat hackneyed one of education. It struck me that this subject might first be regarded from an ancient standpoint, and afterwards from the point of view of our own times; that we might then confine our attention to the question of modern education, and consider it in its various aspects: linguistic, æsthetic, social, ethical, and scientific. It may reasonably be supposed that a subject, admitting of so many and such obvious sub-divisions, would recommend itself to a lecturer, who had been called upon at somewhat short notice to fill the interval of an hour with sound: and, indeed, I should unhesitatingly have adopted it as the substratum of my present discourse, had I been enabled on reflection to discover a single novelty that were true, or a single truth that were novel. Public attention has been drawn in a remarkable manner of late to the topic of school and college instruction, and the utility of Greek and Latin culture has been freely and profanely questioned. The land has been drenched, and saturated, and deluged, with propositions of educational reform. Daily newspapers, forgetful of local or imperial interests, have devoted leaders to the discussion of school discipline and study; magazines have for a while allowed the absorbing subject to take precedence

of the ordinary serials of sensational fiction; and venerable quarterlies, by the weight of the dull argument, have been rendered more than usually prosy and ponderous; popular lecturers have lectured brilliantly and antithetically; members of parliament have issued pamphlets, teeming with a suddenly and almost miraculously acquired fund of mushroom information and erudition; blue books and commissioners' reports have enlightened or bewildered inquirers with investigations prosecuted through hopeless and interminable tomes. Meanwhile, the genius of scholasticism leaps from her throne of ebony, and trembles at the pother overhead, and dreads the intromission of the sunbeam into her kingdom of immemorial twilight. It is from a due consideration of these circumstances, and also from the fact that I am now called on to address a popular, rather than an academic audience, that I venture for the time to wander a little from the beaten path, and to treat of a topic, that at first may appear trifling and whimsical, but which may possibly be found to be fraught with instruction, and suggestive of serious though discursive reflections; in plain words, the subject of my present lecture is the "History and Philosophy of Story-Telling."

Amusement is as requisite for the mind as pleasant exercise for the body, or as light for the support of animal and vegetable life, or as vegetables and fruit for the maintenance of human health. Pleasure may be conveyed to the brain by any of the five senses; in a very restricted way through the two senses of touch and smell;

* Introductory Lecture, delivered by D'ARCY THOMPSON, Professor of Greek in Queen's College, Galway.

in a powerful but prosaic way through the organs of taste ; in a splendid and scenic way through the eye ; and in a way fleeting, evanescent, but divine, through the ear. A blind man may derive from the sense of touch, a pleasure beyond all our conceptions. With us, the sense has no part in the business of mental amusement. I know of nothing beyond snuff for furnishing a mental stimulant through the nose. The substantial part of a good dinner may render a man lazily philanthropic during the period of digestion ; but only the liquid part, and that when taken in perfection and in moderation, can heighten his intellectual sensibilities, or expand his intellectual capacity. Music appeals directly to the brain ; if it be grand, solemn, and majestic, it will remain there, quiescent ; if it be sad and touching, it will fly to the lachrymal duct, and escape in the condensed form of tears ; if it be light and merry, it will run along the nerve-conductors, surcharging the whole frame with electricity, and setting the lowermost extremities in sympathetic motion. Music conveys the most ravishing and exquisite of all mental pleasures. Its travelling notes are finer than gossamers, impalpable as sunlight ; but, alas ! the pleasure it conveys is as short-lived as it is exquisite. We cannot frame a melody to hang it on our walls ; we cannot set it on a pedestal, nor bind it in Russia leather. It is a free spirit, and will away ; to attempt retaining it a prisoner were as vain as the clutching at a perfume, or the nailing down of a rainbow. The eye is the great inlet of instruction and delight ; and this latter may be subdivided into pleasure founded on fact, and pleasure founded on imagination ; and imagination may be worked upon by scenic representation, picture, sculpture, or story. And story-telling may, in some sense, embrace the other methods ; and to story-telling, or story-reading, our attention is now chiefly directed.

If ancient mythologies were thoroughly probed, they would, for the most part, resolve themselves into a simple and beautiful worship of the great powers of nature ; and the sun, moon, earth, sea, fire, and air, would be found leading or elementary characters. The real or apparent movements of the two former—their partial or total eclipses—their real or supposed effect on vegetation or animal life—the variation produced by the seasons on the earth's surface—the opposite effects of fire and water—and the diversities of atmospheric phenomena, would at first be expressed, from the happy poverty of early vocabularies, in metaphorical or allegorical terms. Now, the way of language is to lose terminations, and to gain words. For language is as a sea-shore, and words

are its pebbles : if the pebbles be few and far between, they will retain their angularities ; if they cluster in heaps together, they will be rendered by mutual friction monotonously oval. Abstract words are the latest introduction into language ; they are the children of high mental culture ; the coinage of great brains. They are the futile, but noble, efforts of human wisdom to express the inexpressible. Their invention is the sign of an almost divine intelligence ; greater even than that by which Adam named created and visible things ; but their inexplicability is the proof of man's weakness, and shews the limits of his faculties. Like as with most other discoveries, their effect is diverse. To the minds of the wise they open out, a little indistinctly, far-off regions of thought ; but on the minds of the vulgar their usage tends only to stereotype error. For as abstract words increase in a language, the use of metaphor dies away. A savage, who speaks only in metaphor, detects intuitively the latent symbol or suggestion. But when the use of metaphor waxes rare, this intuitive faculty, excepting with the highest intelligences, becomes weakened, and the preserved allegories of a simple antiquity gradually obtain a literal interpretation, and become the poetry, or superstition, or the nursery nonsense, of a refined and educated posterity.

The various attributes or properties of the sun and moon gave rise to various and special divinities ; and ignorance or fancy clothed with a special history the names of Zeus, Diespiter, Jupiter, Baal, Apollo, Hermes, Mercurius, Phœbus, Vulcan, Hephæstus, Heracles, Janus, Perseus, Europa, Tithonus, Hyperion ; Juno or Diuno, Dione, Diana, Athene, Phœbe, Luna, Io, Venus, Artemis, Astarte, Aphrodite. The spread of corn, its underground growth, its rise with the poppy and the flowers of early summer, are told with an exquisite grace in the tale of Ceres, and Pluto, and Proserpine. Io is a wandering maiden, driven round and round the world, watched by the Argus of a hundred eyes, who even in sleep has one eye open ; and Hermes slays the Argus, and the maiden has rest ; but the wandering Io is the restless moon, and the hundred eyes of Argus are the twinkling stars ; and the Day-star is the eye that watches after his companions have fallen asleep ; and the slayer of the Argus is the sun that extinguishes the starlight with his own more effulgent glory. The amours of Jupiter and the Mountain-Nymphs express in playful and not inelegant terms the condensation of vapour on the tops of great hills, and the swelling of waters in the mountain streams. The Twin-brethren that live and die by turns, enjoying each a

chequered immortality, are only stars that rise and set alternately. The bow shape of the waning moon made of Diana a huntress; the rays that penetrate the woods are her nightly arrows; the silvery coldness of the orb clothed the goddess with eternal chastity. Venus, born of the sea-foam, is either an allegory of the moon-rise over a watery horizon, or a blunder in philology. Apollo slaying the great serpent, emblematises the purifying powers of sunlight, or of virtue, or of both; the twelve labours of Heracles are the passages of the sun through the twelve signs of the Zodiac; and Europa on the bull's back is the round-faced sun entering into Taurus. Jupiter descended in a shower of gold; and a royal line claimed Danae as their mythical mother. But Danae is but a symbol of the earth; and the shower of golden sunbeams falls still upon the willing soil; enriching and fertilising, as in the days of old. The Isis, whose veil may never be uplifted, and the shifty Proteus on the ribbed sea-sand, are the symbols of nature, whose secret no wisdom or curiosity will ever resolve, and whose swift subtlety no ken of human intelligence will ever follow.

At a very early period in the world's history men, for mutual comfort or protection, would group into tribes, under the control of a patriarch or chief. In course of time some one particular chieftain would distinguish himself pre-eminently, would be regarded by subsequent generations as the personification of the tribe itself, and round his name would cluster all the qualities and achievements of less conspicuous or memorable heroes. In some such way have been handed down the legendary stories of Hellen, Théséus, Trôs, Dardanus, Danaus, and other representative and impersonal names. Again, long before an image was either cut in wood or carved in stone, before ever a picture was painted of man, animal, or outward nature, the grandest, most suggestive, but most uncopyable, of all pictures was nightly visible to all. The positions of the fixed stars would be noted down for guides in travelling by land or sea; clustering stars would be grouped in fancied forms; and fantastic forms would lead to fantastic stories, and these stories would often be employed to illustrate the history or glorify the apotheosis of a legendary chief. Again, a tribe, emigrating westwards, would bring with it old poetic and mythological traditions. It would have some one favourite divinity; or from many diverse attributes of a divinity it would select a particular one as typical of its own aspirations. A chance and opportune omen would be taken on the journey from bird, or beast, or creeping thing;

and an eagle, a wolf, or a grasshopper, would be for evermore sacred to their god, and the crest of their chieftains. The adventures of many wandering years would gather materials for legendary lays, and into these lays would be inserted scraps of old mythological fancy, and the marvellous, but truth-based, yarns of travellers by sea and land. In after ages, the splendid nonsense of heroic achievements would be received unquestioningly by descendants, as marks of antiquity and high descent. So with us, no sensible man would tolerate incredulity regarding St George and the Dragon, or the tale of the Round Table and its imaginary knights. Meanwhile, some combined expedition, like a crusade, would leave behind it traditions that would set bards a-singing for a century or two; varying legends would eventually be stereotyped by some pre-eminent poetic genius, and a poetic or religious creed would be fixed and passed on, to endure until old things had faded away, and new things had become old and unintelligible, and solemn, and divine.

By some such gradual process arose the two greatest of all stories, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*; the two great streams of incident and fancy, swollen by the scattered rills of a hundred old-world legends; the one, majestically broad and deep, drawn from the depths of old Indian mythology, and coloured but enriched with the sands of human circumstance; the other, calm and peaceful, welling from the fancies and traditions of Phœnician and Greek sea-lore. These two poems, together with the story of the Argonauts, form the first great epoch in the story-telling of Western Europe. As in them the folk-lore of previous generations had been almost thoroughly exhausted, the invention of singers was at a stand still, until some great historic change should furnish the requisite basis for a poetic superstructure. For centuries the story-making process became one of disintegration. The tragedies and comedies of ancient Greece are deduced from the two grand arguments; they are but corollaries to two leading propositions, or shrines and chapels appended to two grand and towering cathedrals.

For two thousand years blind Homer was sole Emperor of Storyland, the longest reign on record. His tributary princes were *Æschylus*, *Sophocles*, *Euripides*, and *Virgil*; and in enumerating these princes, it is easier to follow chronology than to fix the gradations of their poetic rank. It is a singular fact, that, of the above five, it is the Roman *Virgil* that owed most to the inspiration of the great Master, but that the sixth book of the *Æneid*, which was almost entirely *Virgil's* own, was destined, in the course of centuries, to

aid Dante in his claim to a share of sovereignty. The conquests of Alexander, the spread of Roman arms, and the growth of Christianity,—all contributed to diversify the fancy of Europe. Saints and martyrs pushed demigods and heroes off their old pedestals; Jove followed Saturn into eternal banishment; and Pan, with all his merry goat-hooved satyrs, was consigned to an appropriate Hades. At length, when Rome had culminated and set, when Paganism had crumbled to pieces, and Christianity was the established religion of the west, in the fulness of time came the *Divina Commedia* of Dante:

Tantæ molis erat divinum condere carmen.

The *Inferno* is a religious poem, due mainly to genuine Christian inspiration, and partly to the genius of Virgil. Side by side with the more majestic school of Christian story arose the school of fanciful romance. The *Girusalemme Liberata* is the *Iliad* of this latter school, and the *Orlando Furioso* is its *Odyssey*. In them we see the incidents, real or supposed, of romantic chivalry, illustrated with fancies stolen from pagan poets of antiquity, and chiefly from the poet of *Sulmo*, the author of the immortal *Metamorphoses*.

The Genius of Romance and Knight-errantry was killed by the inextinguishable laughter of Cervantes. The great humourist flourished his magic pen, and the earth, opening, swallowed enchanted castles, and swarthy necromancers, and unchivalric giants; and pretty pilgrim maidens rode their palfreys for ever out of sight into the depths of impenetrable forests; and idle but gallant knights, on unwearied cock-horses, galloped momentarily into Limbo.

In English history the day of Bosworth field is the partition between old things and new. We allow, upon the stage, a helmet and a plume to Richmond in the closing scene of Richard III., but our ideas of him as a historic personage are connected with the rise of monarchy, the decline of noblesse, the foundation of a navy, and the growth of commerce. Europe has for a while been covered with a Siberian frost of antiquated and worn-out feudalism; but the spring is setting in with a marvellous swiftness and a force of irresistible expansion, and the ice on every side is cracking with a sound of thunder. The printing-press is revealing the intellectual secrets of ancient civilizations; new keys are in use to unlock the closed treasure-chests of science; bold mariners are doubling the Cape in one way, and doubling the known world in another; and the time is ripening towards the birth of the most universal of all human Makers, the greatest of all great

story-tellers. The native historical plays of Shakspeare are books of the only genuine English epic. The writer is so impressed with the human incident of his stories, that he slurs over descriptions of scenery and details, as a reader is wont to do in the perusal of a modern novel. A book or chapter, as we may term an act or scene, opens with the brief but sufficing explanation: Scene 6—a heath, a street; Time—midnight, evening; Place—Mantua, Bohemia, anywhere. In a moment the actors are before us, not a second is lost; fool, and courtier, and knight, and king keep us rapt and listening till the story is told, and the curtain drops. In the classical plays of Shakspeare we have, despite of errors in costume, chronology, and geography, more graphic and true pictures of Roman life and character than are furnished by the best comedies of antiquity. In the imaginative plays we have a web spun by Minerva out of tangled threads of Italian story and simple nursery lore, or out of the richer threads of the poet's own magic spinning.

From the accession of Henry VII. to the death of Elizabeth, monarchy was supreme in England. Its nobility retained the prestige of birth, but their political power was gone. They lent brilliancy to the court, but were no check upon the Sovereign's will. Meanwhile, a class, at first but little feared and less respected, is growing yearly in numerical strength, and gradually broadening its pretensions and objects. For a time, unthinking statesmen would imagine that its members were seeking only some unfeasible and chimerical form of church government; were careless of state and commerce, and intent only on the realisation of a Biblical Utopia. But towards the close of Elizabeth's reign, it is becoming manifest that these men, though marching towards a spiritual Zion, can halt betimes, and do battle for the restriction of royal prerogative and the extension of secular liberty. The capricious but great and autocratic Queen is succeeded by a monarch of extensive but impracticable learning, who grasps convulsively a sceptre too heavy for his feeble and irresolute hand. No longer an obscured and despised sect, the Puritans are now a power in England. A second Stuart succeeds; a king of cultivated intellect, of refined taste, faithful in friendship, sincere in his religious convictions, and, in looks, as Vandyke shews us, every inch a king. But the traditions of an autocratic dynasty, the admonitions of an unwise father, the counsels of reckless associates, are blinding him to the signs of the times. He has eyes, but cannot see; judgment, but will not understand. In the grand but terrible catastrophe that overwhelmed him,

let us turn away our thoughts from questions of political or religious strife, and look only to the æsthetic fruit of this great crisis in our national history. There is a new-comer that claims a place beside Homer, and Virgil, and Dante, and Shakspeare. In freshness and breadth of human sympathy he is inferior to Homer; in sweetness, and delicacy, and taste, and pathos, to Virgil; in universal intuitiveness to Shakspeare; but he builds up a stately poem, that lacks the horror of the *Inferno*, but that equals it in sublimity, and that surpasses it and all other poems or stories in unity of design and grandeur of subject. This story-teller has drawn largely from Roman and Italian cisterns, but more largely from the springs of a genuine and native religious earnestness. His religious as well as his political views may have their gloomy and forbidding, and even repulsive aspect, but they have also their aspect of stern and fearless and uncompromising manliness. In the *Paradise Lost* we detect the influence of Virgil and of Dante; but the vigour and strength of the great work is breathed into it by the genius of a refined Puritanism. In coming centuries, when religious differences shall have been softened down, admiring readers will care little whether Milton were Cavalier or Roundhead, Puritan or Churchman, and will only recognise in him the second in the roll of England's poet-names, and the fifth in order of the great story-tellers of the Western World.

Since the days of Milton, one name, and one only, has been added to the five. As a singer, Scott ranks below any of his great predecessors; but, if his verse be supplemented by his prose, he may not unjustly claim the sixth place in the honourable and exclusive fraternity. When Scotland was gradually amalgamating with its southern and richer neighbour; when the descendants of its kings were forgetting Holyrood and Perth; when its nobles were visiting the old land only for occasional pastime; and there seemed a chance that the chivalry of a gallant people would be attested in after days by the dull and unsympathetic pen of the chronicler alone, then arose a singer of songs and a panorama painter, that peopled the glens and hills and valleys of his beautiful country with the life-echoes of half-forgotten generations. The adventurous monarch, the haughty chieftain, the gentle maiden, the lawless borderer, the imperious châtelain, move before us with the costumes, the habits, the speech and thoughts of life-time. The facts of history may be chalked down by the chronicler; the hidden causes of great movements—at the best but indistinctly and uncertainly—may be traced by the philosophic his-

torian; but the spirit, the breath, the aroma, and the perfume of an age can be caught only by the poet-painter or the poet story-teller. We have, then, constituted an order of genius, more exacting in its requirements, more exclusive in its regulations than the Order of the Garter or of the Golden Fleece, or of Maria Theresa; in fact, than any order, imperial, monarchical, or republican.

Had time allowed, it would have been a pleasant task to review briefly the works of those that have achieved distinction in the field of story-telling, but who have failed to attain the blue ribbon of the great art; to enumerate the long line of western story-tellers, who have said their say without the magic aid of rhythm or rhyme; to have spoken of that venerable gossip-historian, Herodotus; of that portrait-painter of heroes, Plutarch; of that pleasant, but irreverent humourist, Lucian; of the witty, fanciful, and versatile Ovid; of the delightful, but far from faultless, Boccaccio; of the seven champions of Christendom; of the Knights of the Round Table; of Parson Adams; of the immortal Vicar of Wakefield; of Uncle Toby; of Harry Esmond; Colonel Newcome; and dear, old, loveable, and inimitable Pickwick: but the requisitions of an inaugural lecture, and the severe dignity of my new position, compel me to avoid these tempting subjects, and to confine my remarks to the great and royal masters of the art which is now under discussion. Of the illustrious six, Britain claims three: Shakspeare, Milton, Scott. Milton, as every one knows, was a finished scholar, and steeped in Latin literature. Shakspeare, with all the native riches of his own imagination, borrowed largely, though probably through the indirect medium of translations, from the writings of antiquity. Scott drew his chief inspiration from the ages of romance and feudalism; and the leading fancies of chivalric romance were very often but old, classic ideas, coloured in passing through a Christian prism. It is difficult to read the battle of Flodden in *Marmion*, without suspecting that Scott had read the Homeric battles, either in Greek or in some English metrical translation.

In reviewing the works of these great masters, we are struck especially with one common attribute of simplicity. Their leading characters are broadly typical, their incidents unforced, their plots simple and natural. In modern times, and of late years especially, we have been accustomed to spurious sentiment, tawdry painting, glaring antithesis, and tiresome circumstantiality in unimportant details. No incident moves us unless it be startling and abnormal; we are wearied with the old-fashioned plots of trouble in the second volume, and matrimony in the third. We plunge

our heroes into misery, and our heroines into crime, in a way that would have terrified or disgusted our grandfathers. We rejoice in surprises, and revel in horror. Nightmare and dyspepsia are the presiding spirits of our modern story-telling. Ere long our tastes will grow more coarse, and gloomy, and horror-loving. We shall be content only with authors that marry their villains to the wrong people, or that hang their heroines by mistake, or that leave at the close of their last chapter, a respectable hero on an eternal treadmill. It is a difficult thing to resist altogether a fashion either of thought or costume. When we are in the midst of a great crowd, we are apt to lose our individuality, and to be led along by its impulses. Our only chance of acting wisely and reasonably is to stand apart, and reflect, or seek advice; and to act upon our reflections or the counsel proffered. If it be our desire to escape the mischievous and deleterious influences of modern sensationalism, and to purify our taste with simple and beautiful images; to broaden our sympathies by the study

of our complex, many-sided nature; to weaken or eradicate petty and local prejudices by associating with the recorded excellences of other places and of pastimes; to strengthen our sense of honour, fairness, and good manners, by maxim or example, let us have recourse to the works of some of the great masters, of some one, or two, or three, or, if possible, to the works of all. Let us seek health and refreshment from a book of the war round windy Ilium, from a journey in the underworld with the Sibyl of Cumæ; from the more grand and terrible journey of the Florentine and his Divine Master, from the wars of the Plantagenets in France, from the story of Paradise and the great war in heaven; or let us ramble on the heather, or sail across the lake with royal James or black Roderick. And briefly, and in conclusion, let us, in our mental as well as in our social hours of relaxation, select only or chiefly for our companions such spirits as are plain, and simple, and unaffected, and genuine, and true.



THE NECESSITY OF A KNOWLEDGE OF PHYSIOLOGY.



WHILE we hear from every lip a sort of general acquiescence in the importance of science, and some people, not scientific, will declaim at great length upon the topic, we meet with obstruction now, as our forefathers did in their day, as soon as we apply this presumed acquiescence to a special science. The sun would move round the earth long after Galileo proved it could not. The arteries were filled with air, and the vital fluid merely passed to and fro in the veins long after Harvey proved the circulation of the blood. The earth still persists in her youth, denies her wrinkles, jealous of her age as any young lady, asserting only 5000 or 6000 birthdays, while our antediluvian friends the geologists convince us she is old enough to be her own great great grandmother. While our political economists investigate the laws that govern society, they are called cold-hearted, close-fisted, and other unamiable names. The lady who, in one breath, grows sentimental over kindness to animals, gives her next breath to a screech at the sight of a black-beetle, goes into fits if a spider crawls over her, and would no more touch, "Ugh! the little fright" of a tadpole or eel, than Miss Ophelia would Topsy. Similarly with Physiology, we have had good friends visiting our schoolroom for religious exercises, reverently say-

ing, "How fearfully and wonderfully I am made," and as reverently turning our diagrams for fear the meeting should understand the meaning of the verse. The picture of God's chiefest work is awful, unfit, indelicate; it is prying into things not intended for us to know; it is not polite for them to look us in the face; it is more polite to make them turn their backs upon us. The study is hard and dry, and bewilders us with long words.

Amidst all this the scientific man has one great comfort—he knows that he is right, and he is happier under his load of obloquy than he would be in purchasing peace at the price of truth. Who are the objectors? Do the Economists say their science makes them hard? that they feel less inclined to relieve distress because they understand its cause? that they are less disposed to remedy evil because they have discovered the only remedy for it? Is it the Geologist who says his science makes him profane? Is it the Physiologist who tells you that he has learnt how unseemly he has found the investigation of the laws of health?

Invariably the objectors are ignorant of the subject they condemn. Ignorance is strongly conservative, and is frightened at a new thought. The scientific man, who alone has a right to speak, will tell you, on the other hand, that his science has given him an insight into wisdom, and beauty.

and law, which his opponent not only has never seen, but is incapable of seeing. Health is a subject to which we cannot be indifferent. It has been and can be made intensely interesting to children; and a large number of children, some as young as eight and nine, took honourable distinctions in the last local examinations under the Science and Art department. Hard is a relative term. Long words, known, are easy; short words, not known, are hard. Jerusalem is as simple as mutton, because we know them both. Words that come to us as a necessity or as a convenience, saving us from circumlocution, are remembered; it is easier to remember than forget them, for we should get back the circumlocution and want the word again.

As an example of the apparent difficulty of the subject, let us take the skeleton. If I tell you I am going through about 200 bones of which our frame is made, you will be rather alarmed. If I say I will teach you them in half an hour, you downright deny it. First, observe the bony framework is symmetrical: one side corresponds precisely with the other; and this is really reducing our difficulty one half. Then classify the framework: we find head, trunk and limbs. The cranium contains 8 bones, and the face 14, which from their symmetry divide by 2 the difficulty of learning them. The trunk consists of vertebral column and thorax. The term "vertebra" is common to all the bones of this column, and "ribs" supplies a name to 24 bones. In the members again, there is a correspondence between the bones of the fore and the hind limbs. The single word phalanges supplies a name to an array of 56 little bones in the fingers and toes. Thus do the difficulties dwindle down; and this is only an example of what occurs throughout the study.

Besides the claim made upon us by physiology, the common claim of science, it has a high and special claim of its own. The great end of physiology is health. It is an investigation into the laws of health; for the establishment of the principles upon which alone we can realise the proverbial desire of a healthy mind in a healthy body.

If we look back to former ages of our own country, or abroad to countries around us, we have reason to feel blessed in many respects. The plague, pestilence, and other dire epidemics, do not find here, as once they did, soil to fatten upon. Once regarded as judgments from heaven, with which it were impious to deal, or as spells of witchcraft, and which, even in later times, could be remedied only by the burning London down, from Pudding Lane to Pie Corner, they are now exor-

cised, when coming in the corresponding forms of cholera and fevers, by baths and washhouses, parks and green spaces, winding streets and opening *cul de sacs*, by Thames embankments and millions spent upon London drainage. The laws of health have been forced upon us by the direst calamities. The leaders of the intelligence of the day have had to do battle with the inertia of ignorance, and call to their aid able but tyrannical officers, Generals Disease, Terror, Despair, before consolidating a victory. If, instead of the few having to fight for health, the knowledge of the laws of health were made common amongst the young, it is plain that, in another generation, we should not have to cure an evil, but should have taken the wiser precaution of preventing it. Our first thought now-a-days in case of fever breaking out, is to look for its cause in ill-drainage, or other foulness in the house or locality. The fever map of London depicts the black spots where we may, with the certainty of experience, rely upon the deadly typhus, either as a constant unforbidden guest, or a visitor at predicated intervals. Only by the suffering of generations do such facts become acknowledged. No one can dispute that the tendency, at least of better knowledge, would be to diminish these afflictions. Of a hundred children taught their own wonderful structure, and the means of preserving it in health, and a hundred others left to pick up their knowledge through "judgments" upon them, or how they best can, we may say, with the certainty of demonstration, that the first hundred will pass the most enjoyable existence; that the exceptions to healthy enjoyments in the first will be fewer than the exceptions to disease in the last. Take as an example the many who suffer from indigestion. Is it more than reasonable that a knowledge of the nature of food and of digestion would guide the sufferers materially in their diet and mode of life, and save them indefinite pain? Not that it would lead to their doctoring themselves, for no one so well as the physiologist knows how needful is good advice when disease is upon us; but, on the other hand, it would tend to that care of one's self beforehand as to make disease far less likely to arrive.

That the truths taught by physiology do spread, we have many evidences. Our young ladies have come to the conclusion that Venus de Medici is a finer model than the insect-like form they once cut themselves into by tight lacing; and although they have only discarded the wooden hoops of their grandmothers for iron ones, as more appropriate to the age, so that their dresses sway about with the grace of inflated air balloons, and,

even while they still endure the torture of holes bored in their ears, repetitions of *la belle sauvage*, yet dress, compared with aforetime, is altogether, from childhood upwards, made with greater regard to the principles of health. We see it also in our life tables and insurance bonuses. We have thus good ground to go upon, and only require that the knowledge should more rapidly spread, till it has become a common possession. Happy will it be for England when public opinion makes the teaching of physiology obligatory in all our schools.

Science generally is so little thought of as an element of school instruction that we cannot regard with wonder that physiology, however important, is left to be picked up in after life, if learnt at all. One common consequence follows from this. A diagram of the human frame turns a boarding-school miss sick, and a skeleton gives her the nightmare. Even grown men will shudder at a surgical preparation of an animal, who would call a far less skilful preparation under the butcher's knife a "handsome" joint. The surgeon sees beauty in a cerebrum, skilfully prepared, because he has been educated to discern the beauty. And if we can imagine some civilised vegetarian who has never seen a butcher's shop, we can also imagine his loathing at the sight of the carcase of an ox, while he would admire the crystal phial containing a dissection. We must take the world as we find it, however; not lament the past, not blame the present, but improve the future. If we were compelled to choose between the two, which we are not, whether boys or girls should be taught physiology, reason would prompt us to elect the girls, who will be trainers of the young of the next age, the benders of the twig, the incliners of the tree, upon whose judicious care, far more than upon fathers and schoolmasters, depends the early development of body and mind. They, if any, should have some sensible ideas upon the subject of health, in order not only to keep themselves well, but as mothers and nurses to save their offspring from pain and suffering.

If the objection to the study of physiology by girls be simply that it pains the feelings, let us respect the objection, and save the young people from such pain. They are pained because they don't understand; they are brought to a strange study hitherto hidden from them. The direct way to save them from the pain would be to enlighten their understanding. If taught early in life, they are unconscious of any discomfort; and surely if the subject be of the importance contended for, this discomfort, which would grow smaller by degrees till unfelt, had better be en-

dured. Nay, a false shame conquered is a triumph, were no physiology acquired at all. With respect to the study giving rise to impure thoughts, let us not charge it upon the science. Impurity is, in such a case, in the mind, not in the science. To the pure all things are pure. The skilful teacher of physiology addresses himself to his subject in a manner that a blush should not suffuse the most modest cheek. He would not utter a word that he would not teach his daughter nor repeat in a lady's drawing room. His subject gives him great facilities for this, for while he applies his teaching directly to the human body, his illustrations are drawn from every part of the animal world.

Perhaps the most terrifying illustration we could present to a ladies' school would be the human skeleton. If the whole class did not run away at the bare mention of the name, let us sketch in outline, a short course of instruction, which should not ignore their terror and yet charm it away. We might begin with the delicate framework of one of our little birds; examine its structure, admire its keel-shaped breast-bone, adapted to dart through the ocean of air in which it lives, its hollow bones for lightness, its vertebrate type of head, trunk, fore and hind limbs, the careful protection of its spinal cord in the vertebral column, the expansion of the nervous cord into the brain, something of the nature and function of nerves, how characteristic of all but the lowest animal life; how pre-eminently developed in man, especially the brain, its interest to us as the link between life and matter; its importance as the organ of consciousness. Going back to the bird, we see how carefully the vital organs of the trunk are protected by the bony cage called the thorax; the brain also by a box of bone called the cranium. Now let us draw an inference. If we had a priceless treasure that we would not part with sooner than with our life, certainly we should guard it with all care. If we had two boxes to choose from for its safe custody, one solid, strong, without a join or a crack, the other full of rents, not a moment should we be in choosing the first. Well, the brain is our priceless treasure, and so carefully is it guarded, that from the hair outside to the *pia mater* next to the brain substance, no less than ten coverings can be counted. The skull itself is formed of an outer and an inner plate joined by a honeycomb structure called *diploë*, much the same as a ship is strengthened with a double hull. When Pompey cried out, "Massa, me very much obliged, but you will break those bricks if you let them fall on my head," he gave an example of the strength of the skull. Let us then examine this

skull or cranium, as it is called. Strange to say, our inferences have not helped us here. The cranium is full of joints, fitting together with saw-like teeth. It is formed of no less than eight pieces. Observe now an experiment. Here are two slates, one perfect, one with a crack across. I give the first a blow; what happens? It is broken right across, or perhaps smashed. I give the second a blow; the fracture extends only to the original crack. Apply the lesson to the cranium. Unforeseen by us, strength was not the only requirement in the box to keep our brain in. The keen interest these lessons excite banishes fear. Children impressed with these startling surprises, which meet them at every step in these lessons, never forget the impression, and learn to be careful in generalising—a salutary mental discipline.

Space does not allow an indulgence in more of these examples. In conclusion, however, we may hail it as propitious for our country, that over 650 candidates went up for examination in May last, in connection with the department of science and art, and that the subject stands second favourite on the list.*

One point in the examination papers, which are prepared by Professor Huxley, exemplifies what we may regard as another necessity for physiological study. They test the student in common sense science—in those simple common things which we all ought to know, and don't know because we think we do. How many

knowing experimentally what food is, would be puzzled by the simple question, "What is food?" How many young gentlemen who would not doubt for a moment which to kiss, his sweetheart or an oak tree, supposing her near one, would make many guesses before he described the exact difference between an animal and a plant. We had a sensation lately about Bantingism. Ought not men, if passing intelligent, be able to explain the principles of his system? How do we swallow? A man at the theatre drinks a glass of wine standing on his head, How does he do it? What processes does a ham sandwich go through after being swallowed? The answer to such a question, involving, as it does, the proximate principles of our food, explains at the same time much of Mr Banting's system. Give the choice to most people of a diet of beer, sugar, butter, and starch (in any of its forms), and a diet of bread and water, and the first would be chosen. The last, however, would be the wisest, for we could live on it, while we should certainly starve on the first. Four men were killed, one by drowning, one suffocated in the hold of a ship, one was hanged, one by going down a well; how was it all these men died the same death? Why does a soldier drop down immediately he is shot? Are any of these questions so recondite that one, thinking himself sensible, might be excused from answering. The thought, though not the expression, is taken at random, and from memory, from Professor Huxley's questions of several years past.

* See *Museum* for October.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM.*

IN the work, the title of which we give below, Professor Ziller undertakes to shew the necessity of great and important changes in the common methods of instruction. The first instalment of it, which now lies before us, is of a deeply interesting nature, and whether we agree or not in the conclusions to which Professor Ziller has come, his arguments deserve the greatest attention on the part of all educators. Unfortunately the book is defective in form. The style is often lumbering in the highest degree. The chapters are unusually long, and the writer affords

little clue to his train of thought. Yet, if the book be carefully studied, it will be found to be orderly in a high sense. It is the production of a thoroughly systematic thinker; and, indeed, if objections be taken to his book, it will be that he has adhered with rigorous tenacity to his fundamental ideas, without letting the light of experience in any way disturb his conclusions.

Professor Ziller is a professed follower of Herbart, and, consequently, in Herbart are his main principles to be found.

The great aim of education, according to Professor Ziller, is a morally religious one. It "labours to produce virtue or love in the Christian sense." In this respect the language of Professor Ziller agrees with that of very many educationists. But when he comes to discuss the

* *Grundlegung zur Lehre vom erziehenden Unterricht. Nach ihrer wissenschaftlichen und praktisch-reformatorischen Seite entwickelt von Prof. D. Ziller. Erste Abtheilung. Leipzig, 1865.*

means by which the moral idea is to be produced, he differs widely from most. In this country the notion is common that instruction and education are not only to be distinguished, but are, as it were, accomplished by a different series of acts on the part both of teachers and scholars. The teacher conveys instruction directly by oral communication. He educates by his own conduct, by the enthusiasm with which he performs his duty, by moral precepts, which he incidentally instils into his pupils, and by the regular discipline to which he subjects them. Professor Ziller's opinions are entirely opposed to this prevalent notion. He maintains that the instruction itself can be made a more powerful educator than government and discipline. He accordingly divides instruction into two kinds: that which does not educate and that which educates. The non-educating instruction imparts a certain amount of knowledge, or it enables one to do a certain thing. The educating instruction, on the other hand, forms the character, establishes principles within the mind, and in the end secures the morally religious aim after which education strives.

But how does it accomplish all this? In the answer to this question lies the special point of view from which Dr Ziller's work is written; and this point of view is Herbart's scheme of morals. Herbart believed that that which really made a high moral character was the possession of true moral ideas, or, as we should term them, principles. These moral ideas are the results of long-continued groupings of representations in the mind. They cannot be introduced by any instantaneous process, but are the results of wide, natural inductions.

Dr Ziller states the case thus. In speaking of education without instruction, he says that no lasting impression can be produced. "This is the universal teaching of experience, and psychology shews that it cannot be otherwise. For while the representations form a firm foundation in the mental life, sensations, feelings, desires, emotions, and all such states of the emotional nature are only changeable modifications of the representations that are present in the consciousness, in which they are situated, and are in the highest degree mutable, indeed exceedingly transient states of these representations. They point out a departure from the equilibrium of the mind. When, therefore, the cause which modifies the mind's state of equilibrium ceases to work, when the source in consciousness disappears, out of which the departure from equilibrium has proceeded, and the representations in the emotional state have passed away, the circle of thought re-

turns of itself into its former relation, the mind resumes its old position, and not a trace remains behind of the emotional states of the mind."—P. 212. On the other hand, he maintains that "a permanent impression on the mind (*im Innern*) can be produced only through the production and elaboration of representations, *only through the determination and changing of the circle of thought*; and as instruction is directed to this point in a straight line, we must add that instruction has this invaluable advantage over all other kinds of pedagogic treatment, that its effects are more lasting than the impressions which are produced only through the excitement of the emotional nature; in other words, that instruction is the strongest pedagogic power. And this is all the more decidedly the case that virtue, faith itself, the final end of pedagogic instruction and of all education, is a permanent mode of the emotional nature; for in them the personal will is permanently subject to the ideal knowledge" (p. 216).

As this is the fundamental doctrine of Dr Ziller, we translate another passage in which he states his opinion in the language characteristic of the school of Herbart. "We can indicate still more minutely," he says, "how the mental activity which is to be produced by the pedagogic instruction must be constituted. For in the notion of virtue and love, a *plurality of ideas* is contained, to which the will has to subject itself in obedience and humility in order not to displease. The ideas, indeed, set up no new laws; they express no demands, they impose no duties, they simply assert what volition and action is praiseworthy or blameworthy, what awakens satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Also in Christianity, the law-service of Judaism has been destroyed, and as a compensation for it, Christ presents in his own personality, the concrete union of the ideas, and a model for our personal conduct. But while we gaze on the model and the divine personality, demands and duties arise if our willing and acting is not in harmony with them. For then a dissatisfaction is felt, and that this may be avoided, demands and duties force themselves on us. Now of the ideas there is one, the idea of perfection, which is purely formal, and, if we express its contents as a demand, it demands only the increase of the mental activity on all sides, of whatever nature this activity may be. The rest of the ideas, on the other hand, are directed to the improvement of the mental activity, and if we again adhere to the notion of duty, they make this improvement a duty. From the ideas, therefore, which are contained in the notion of virtue or Christian love, there flows in general, partly the demand on pedagogic instruction, to

increase and not diminish the mental activity, and partly the demand to improve it, and not make it worse. Without fulfilling these demands instruction cannot really work towards virtue and love."—P. 225.

We have tried to give the main idea of Dr Ziller's work as fully and clearly as we can ; for the rest of his book is rigorously worked out from it. The reader would be entirely misled, however, if he imagined that Dr Ziller's work is purely philosophical. On the contrary, it is eminently practical, and prescribes in the most definite manner what, in each case, is to be done. Dr Ziller is himself engaged in the work of education, and he states in his preface that he is anxious that his book shall contain, not only the requisite generalizations, but also the definite courses of conduct which carry out the ascertained laws.

Following out his principles, Dr Ziller maintains that every lesson is to be so given that it shall call out the greatest amount of the pupil's self-activity. If it does not do this, it has no educating power. But not only must each lesson be given so as at once to increase and refine the mental activity, but the course of lessons must work towards a whole. The ideas which regulate the conduct can be produced in the mind only through the grouping together of representations ; and this can take place only when the instructions combine towards unities in the free activity of the mind. Dr Ziller therefore, denounces in the strongest language two great evils which affect many of our own schools. The one is the habit which is apt to prevail in commercial places of turning the school into a mere congeries of hour-classes, which do not work into each other. In this case the teachers are not educators. They require merely a knowledge of the branches they profess to teach, but they do not need to know how it is to be communicated, and how it is to arouse the activity of the scholar. The other evil is the employment of young men, who have not studied the art of education, and who have no intention of being teachers permanently, in the instruction of the young. These cannot evoke the self-activity of the pupils. They cannot awaken desires for farther knowledge in him. They not only do not educate him, but they frustrate the very object of instruction and leave their pupils in many respects worse than when they got them. Dr Ziller complains that even the teachers in gymnasias make great failures in giving instruction, because they have themselves no preliminary instruction in the art of education and the laws of evoking the mental powers. And he demands with very powerful arguments, that all instructors should study *pädagogik* at the univer-

sity. We are sorry we have no space for many interesting extracts which we might make on these subjects. We shall confine ourselves to a few of the peculiar opinions to which Dr Ziller gives expression.

Dr Ziller maintains that the aim of instruction must be to awaken interest. Towards the end of his book he thus sums up the results of his investigations:—"Instruction must have a two-fold principal direction, an historical and a scientific ; and to this must be attached, on the one side, a knowledge of languages, and on the other, mathematics. Instruction must further improve and not diminish the mental activity of the pupil. All that it presents must finally work together, on which account it is of essential importance in what order and sequence it is presented. Hence the kind of instruction is by no means a matter of indifference. . . . We have still two points to discuss. On the one side, instruction must be harmoniously many-sided. On the other hand, it must bring forth not a mere knowledge and a capability attaching itself to this, but a deep, complete sentiment (*Gesamtempfindung**) through the knowledge and capability, and the feeling of interest must be the means by which the willing is to proceed from the knowledge and power. From this it follows that the production, not of a harmoniously many-sided knowledge, but of a harmoniously many-sided interest must be one aim of instruction. But we go further. We maintain that it is not merely one among many other aims of instruction. It is rather exactly the aim and business of instruction. It is its nearest, immediate object, in which the totality of its exertions must unite. Only when they do so unite, can they produce one complete effect which leads to volition. The final end, indeed, of instruction lies in the notion of virtue or Christian love, and, therefore, it might be supposed that there was no need of a special object for education. But virtue and Christian love is also the final object of discipline and education. That side, therefore, of virtue must be pointed out which it is the special work of instruction to call forth."—P. 273. Dr Ziller works out this idea in the chapter from which we have made the extract, describing how in each portion of instruction there must be no mechanical repetition, no mere routine work, but always insight, reflection, consideration. We cannot follow him into his minute directions ; but we extract a short passage in which he repeats his belief that the awakening of interest must be the aim of the instruction. "The relation between learn-

* We do not know very well how to translate this word. It means a feeling which represents, and as it were, embodies all the previous feelings awakened in the instruction.

ing and interest must be reversed. The learning should be the means, and the interest the object. In pedagogic instruction, and in the school that educates, the learning must have for its object the awakening of interest. Indeed the learning should pass away as the educating instruction of youth in the main does. But the interest which is awakened and nourished through it, should be mental capital for life."—P. 278.

Dr Ziller maintains, as we have seen, that the study of languages should be attached to the historical studies. By historical studies he does not mean the perusal of school histories, but the permeating the mind with the ideas and life of particular ages, through their literary and other monuments. The great writers of the country must be studied thoroughly, and only the great writers. The pupil must never subordinate in his mind the acquisition of a knowledge of the literature to the acquisition of a knowledge of the language. Accordingly, at every step the pupil is to be engrossed with the thoughts of great writers, and to pay only so much attention to the language as is necessary to the comprehension of the thoughts. We have said thus much in order that we may prepare our readers for an opinion which has had some able defenders in Germany, and which Dr Ziller now advocates in his work. The opinion is, that in classical schools the studies should commence with Homer. We shall give Dr Ziller's reasons for his opinion:—"It is greatly to be wished that the pedagogic and scientific methods should meet. But their meeting must be unsought, and must not be presupposed universally as a matter of course. For instance, science demands that the study of the Greek language, in which different dialects appeared beside each other, and which went through different phases, be begun with Homer; for only by commencing with him can its historical development be traced out, and it is this historical development which alone produces a thorough insight into the laws of language as they are exhibited in word-formations and inflections, as well as in syntax and style. In like manner, science demands that the knowledge of the mythology, of the history, of the poetry, yea, even of the ancient geography of Greece be at first drawn out of Homer; for here also the traditions must be traced historically, in order to obtain well-grounded results. A scientific understanding of Greece and the Greek mind, from which also, apart from religion, the principle branch of European culture has proceeded, is so far as such an understanding can be gained from literature, possible only by commencing with Homer. These scientific considerations would nevertheless not be

sufficient reason in themselves why Homer must be made the point of commencement for pedagogic instruction in the Greek language. Here it is much more decisive that, for the circle of thought of a boy, in his ninth and tenth year, who is destined for a learned education, no literary production of the ancient world is so adapted as the narrative of the *Odyssey*, that through it an interest for ancient Greece can be rooted with the greatest certainty, that the Homeric language is the best mnemotechnic foundation for Greek, that, if we put out of sight the religious element, the Homeric life stands on a higher point of ripeness than the life of the Jewish patriarchs, which attaches itself most closely to the pre-historic circumstances made visible through Robinson [*Crusoe*], that even the lower position of the religious life in Homer works advantageously in contrast with the purer religious belief of the patriarchs and of the boy himself, and that the boy must be prepared beforehand for the conflict between the oriental and the Greek world given in Herodotus through the juxtaposition of both worlds."

Dr Ziller discusses many practical questions which are agitating us at the present time. He insists very urgently on the necessity of making the connection between life and the schools closer; and for this purpose he proposes that in the three different classes of schools in Germany, the people's school, citizen school, and the gymnasium, there should be subordinate classes (*Nebenclassen*) in which handicrafts or dexterities of some kind or another should be taught in a way calculated to help the educating instruction. Dr Ziller goes into minute directions as to what he would have taught in each class of schools, varying his directions according to the locality or other necessities.

Dr Ziller also discusses what body of men are best adapted to regulate the affairs of schools, and the conclusion he comes to is one eminently satisfactory to the English mind. He rejects the idea of placing education under the control of the State. The State should only take a general superintendence. He also rejects the control of the Church. He also decidedly rejects the interference of municipal bodies. His idea is that the schools should be managed by representatives of the communities in which the schools are placed, elected simply for their knowledge of, and interest in, educational work. The country should be divided into school-circles and provinces, and each circle or province should have the entire management of the schools. "The families," he says, "of the civic communities must become independent educating-school communities, and their

representatives must, with the co-operation of teachers, become manifold organs, who are summoned to the direction of the school, but are quite distinct from the organs of the civic and ecclesiastical communities. They must farther unite to form circle and provincial educating school communities and their organs, in order to undertake the functions which at present the temporal and spiritual authorities exercise over the educating-school and educating teacher, namely in the testing and appointment of teachers, in the setting up of general aims of instruction, and the regulation of every kind of examination. With the exception of the supreme right of protection and superintendence which belongs to the State, and which includes in it, among other things, the selection of the teachers out of several candidates proposed to it, the educating-school must be dependent only on the school companies (*schulgenossenschaften*). A gradation of school companies is therefore necessary because both the higher schools, which lie beyond the range of single communities, and school inspectors, who are not always to be found in the single community, must be dependent on them, because in their midst, a narrower as well as a wider code of school laws must be formed within the necessary limits, that is, to the exclusion of all determinations in regard to special

schemes, means, and methods of instruction; and because without a general connection between the schools that exist in the same region, there might easily take place an injurious action of one circle of the school communities on another; and in this circumstance, that through their legal organization rights over the school are given only to the school communities and their organs, but not to individual families, lies a protection against the pressure of the contending opinions of families, and against the pride and stupidity of the village and city dignitaries which have often been objects of fear on the part of schools, when such is their constitution."—P. 53.

In concluding, we again commend to our readers this profoundly interesting work. We have not deemed it necessary to note the points in which we differ with Dr Ziller. We may take another opportunity of doing so, when he farther develops his special theories, if we should deem the discussion profitable. In the mean time we hope our readers will form some notion of the work through the extracts which we have made; and we trust that those teachers who know German, will not be deterred from its perusal by its long compounded words, its long sentences, its long paragraphs, and its long chapters.

EDUCATION IN ITALY.*

BEFORE the annexation of the other provinces, Piedmont was vastly in advance of the rest of Italy in education. One in ten out of the entire population attended the schools, while in Naples not one in ninety did so; and in Sicily, out of the female population, even at present, not one in two hundred. The very first care of the Government, as province after province has been joined to form the kingdom of Italy, has been to reform the system of education, to open schools for both boys and girls in every commune, to train teachers who shall hereafter take the place of the very poor lay instructors, and the very dangerous ecclesiastical ones, who have hitherto shared the education of Italy between them. The task was Herculean; but the whole nation has joined in it heart and hand, and the result is something amazing to any one who knows the difficulties in the way.

* From *Italia. Brief Notes on Politics, People, and Places in Italy, in 1864.* By FRANCES POWELL CORRE. London: Tinsley & Co. 1864.

We shall endeavour to give a brief sketch of what has been done in each of the four great departments, namely—I. The *Universities*, for completing the education of youths of the higher classes. II. *Normal Schools*, for the training of teachers, male and female, intended for the Elementary Schools. III. *Elementary Schools*, Upper and Lower, for the gratuitous education of all children, boys and girls, from eight years old upward. IV. The *Asili Infantili*, or Infant Schools for the youngest children, also gratuitous. There are also a number of Adult Schools in different towns. The information I offer may be relied on as accurate, the greater part of it having been derived directly from the Ministero dell' Istruzione at Turin, and the rest from a source perfectly secure.

I. The *Universities* of Italy are somewhat troublesome problems to the Government. There have been nineteen of them from a remote period, and it is clear enough that, to supply nineteen universities with first rate professors to fill all the chairs

of classics and science, is a matter which no country except Germany would find it possible to accomplish. The number of the students in many of them being small (eight of them have less than a hundred, and three less than fifty), these first-class professors must necessarily have their chairs almost wholly endowed by Government. Nevertheless, the obvious plan of reducing Italy's nineteen universities to England's three, is an undertaking at present impracticable. In each of the nineteen towns the university, small or great, is a matter alike of pride and profit to the inhabitants, and its removal would be a cause of public discontent. The various Provinces have given up their independent Courts and local governments for the national good, but the loss of their universities they never contemplated, and to force them to undergo it would be, to say the least, an ungracious task on the part of Turin. Another proposition has been made, which seems more possible of fulfilment just now. It is to apportion the different professional and other studies among different universities, so as to have one for medical students, one for law, one for classical, one for mathematical, one for natural science. The best professor in each line might thus be appointed to the chair he could best fill, and where all students seeking his special instructions would naturally be educated. Even such a plan, however, would entail many difficulties in the transposal of existing chairs, and the filling up of those which in each university, although made of secondary importance, could not be left empty where the entire education of young men was to be carried through. Heartburn is a common disease, alas! in such places all the world over. But it seems to be endemic everywhere in Italy. University Reform would bring on a perfect outbreak of it in the nineteen towns.

The following is a list of the existing universities, with the number of their scholars during the past year.

	Students.		Students.
Pavia . . .	1131	Ferrara . . .	97
Turin . . .	879	Messina . . .	64
Pisa . . .	568	Cagliari . . .	63
Palermo . .	561	Urbino . . .	61
Bologna . .	454	Sassari . . .	39
Modena . . .	398	Camerino . .	39
Parma . . .	268	Macerata . .	31
Catania . . .	213	Naples . . .	2
Genoa . . .	197		
Siena . . .	120	Total, 5270	
Perugia . .	99		

In Naples, in 1861-2, there were 1459 students inscribed, making it the largest university in the kingdom. The downfall of the numbers in 1862-3 depends upon a question of taxes, which the students resented as too high. I am not aware of

the exact figures for the present year, but understand that a compromise has been effected, and the university is again filling with students.

The education given in these universities has not undergone any important change during the formation of the new kingdom. In addition to them there are throughout Italy various institutions for the higher class of instructions, lyceums and *scuole tecniche*, of which I have some reports, testifying to courses of lectures on political economy, chemistry, naval architecture, physical science, &c.

II. The *Normal Schools*, for the training of schoolmasters and mistresses for the Elementary Schools. These were decidedly among the most interesting and important of all the new institutions in Italy, and prove, by their long-sighted policy, how deep and complete is the reform contemplated by the Government. Till of late year, nearly the whole educational system of Italy was in the hands of the Church, and so long as this state of things continued, it was hopeless to expect the youth of the country to grow up with liberal opinions. Yet to alter the system at once was impossible, seeing that the class of lay teachers, so common elsewhere, had been effectually excluded from Italy. Even last year it was found that, out of 14,253 masters of Elementary Schools, 6378 were ecclesiastics, and out of 7604 mistresses, 1106 were nuns, the authorities having been as yet unable to fill up the number with lay teachers. In the present state of things, however, all teachers, whether lay or ecclesiastical, are appointed by, and solely dependent on the civil authority of the Commune where they are employed, and are responsible (so far as their office is concerned) to no ecclesiastical superiors.

There are now existing in Italy twenty-one Normal Schools for training schoolmasters, viz, in Aquila, Ascoli, Bari, Casale, Cosenza, Crema, Florence, Forlì, Lodi, Messina, Naples, Novara, Oneglia, Palermo, Perugia, Pinerolo, Pisa, Reggio (in Emilia), Sassari, Treviso, and Urbino. There are also eighteen Normal Schools for training schoolmistresses, namely, at Alessandria, Ancona, Bologna, Brescia, Cagliari, Camerino, Catania, Como, Florence, Genoa, Girgenti, Lucco, Milan, Mondovì, Naples, Parma, Perugia, and Vercelli. The Masters' Schools contain 901 pupils; the Mistresses', 1637. Each pupil receives an annual pension of 250 francs.

Previous to 1859, in the place of these Normal Schools, there existed in the Sardinian States (where lay-teaching was encouraged by the Government in spite of the Church), some ten *Scuole Magistrali* for the training of masters and thirty

for mistresses. These are still maintained. The instruction in them is of the same sort, but somewhat inferior to that afforded in the new *Scuole Normali*. They help to increase the number of teachers produced by the latter, which still are inadequate in numbers to the demand.

In each Normal School are three professors, with salaries respectively of 2200 francs, 1800 francs, and 1500 francs. In each Female Normal School there is an additional mistress, charged with the moral care of the pupils. The course of instruction in male and female schools is the same, except that the young men only are taught gymnastics and military exercises, and the women needlework.

This course of instruction is as follows:—1. Religion and Morals. 2. *Pedagogia*; or, the Art of Instruction. 3. Italian Language and Rules of Composition. 4. Geography and Natural History. 5. Arithmetic and the Elements of Geometry. 6. The Principles of Physical Science and Elements of Hygienics. 7. Calligraphy. 8. Drawing. 9. Choral Singing.

I have read very carefully the official programmes of examination, published for the use of all the Normal Schools in the kingdom. They are in many respects remarkable. "Religion" is defined to consist in "the catechism of the Diocese, and the story of the Old and New Testaments in two books, approved for questioning children." Everybody knows what affairs are these Catholic stories of the Testaments—the miracles all kept in, and the sense all kept out. But it is perfectly comprehensible that the theology of these schools should be of the briefest. "Morals" are developed much further, and truly the way in which they are handled is more suggestive of the Middle Ages than of the century after Kant. First, we find the science analysed, beginning from "Definition and Division of Ethics," and a discussion on "Free Will" (all accomplished on scholastic principles), to the apparition of those long-departed virgins whom we have not heard of except on allegorical tombstones for several generations—the Cardinal Virtues, Prudence, Justice, Temperance, and Fortitude. On reading of these poor neglected ladies, introduced as still alive and influential, the mind naturally reverts to those other four characters likewise too long forgotten, the Four Elements, from which one of the Fathers demonstrated that there only were, and only could be, four gospels. The Physics of the Italian schools are, however, fortunately much in advance of their Ethics. The third year of Moral instruction takes the pupils into Politics, beginning with proof that the social

state is necessary to mankind, and proceeding to an analysis of the civil and political rights recognised in Italy, the constitution of the Monarchy, and the duties of citizens of free States. The books for students preparing for examination in Moral Science are, Cicero's *Offices*; the *Doveri degli Uomini*, by Silvio Pellico; and four other modern Italian works, including the *Libro del Popolo* of Professor Scavia. The two greatest Italian moralists, old Beccaria and Mazzini, are not included in the list; but it must be granted that it is nevertheless an incalculable advance over the infamous books of Casuistry and Guides to the Confessional, which have hitherto represented ethical science to the youth of Italy.

After Religion and Morals come Grammar, the Elements of Literature, and the History of Italy, the latter including accounts of Dante, Michael Angelo, and Galileo, no less than of political personages.

Geography is made to include notices of the various religions of the world and statistics of the population, military force, &c., of Italy.

Arithmetic advances no further than to the Rule of Three, and the reduction of the old weights and measures into the new decimal system. Also the art of Book-keeping. Geometry is the most marvellous part of the course. We have been accustomed from the days of Alexander to believe that there was no "Royal Road" to the science; but apparently young Italy has found that secret path, for the pupils of the Normal Schools are expected, without passing through such humdrum ways as Euclid or Archimedes, to arrive, in some miraculous manner, at "problems and applications" which are to measure the superficies and solid contents of polyhedrons and pyramids, cones, cylinders, and spheres.

Drawing includes sketches of geometric figures and objects of furniture, and also the manner of teaching the science to the pupils in the elementary schools. Evidently, it is not as a fine art, but as a useful assistance in study and trade, that such instruction is given. Italians, from the highest to the lowest, have a profound reverence for real art, and no notion of arriving at it by any royal road, whatever they might imagine possible as to geometry.

Physics seem to form the most important part of the whole programme. Beginning with the Solar system, the course proceeds through forty heads, inclusive of chemistry, optics, acoustics, mineralogy, botany, physiology, zoology, and geology, and concludes with practical instructions on hygienics. For the use of the professors of this favourite department, a small cabinet of ob-

jects with illustrative diagrams, is required in each school. Curiously enough, in this department, and this alone, the instruction of the female pupils is ordered differently (though not essentially so) from that of the young men.

The whole course concludes with the *Pedagogia*, or Art of Teaching, which is to be the profession of the students.

This long analysis of the course of studies at the Normal Schools of Italy, though somewhat tedious, is, I think, not without interest, as shewing at how high a mark the Government aims for the future teachers of the nation. In reading over the formidable programme signed by De Sanctis, I have been tempted to wonder how far our well-assured English Certified Teachers would stand such examinations, and also how far such a circle of the sciences is really compassed by the young lads and damsels who frequent the Normal Schools of Italy.

The *Scuole Magistrale*, which we have spoken of as the imperfect forerunners of the *Scuole Normali* in Piedmont and Liguria, a few of which are still maintained on the old footing, are so far inferior to the Normal Schools that their courses of instruction only include religion, the Italian language, arithmetic, pedagogy, and writing. Model schools are not in use anywhere in Italy. The pupils in the *Scuole Normali* and *Magistrali* either practise teaching by attending the Elementary Schools in their neighbourhood, or have children from these schools brought to them in their own schools for instruction.

III. The *Elementary Schools*. These are the great glory of the new Government, the institutions which, had it done nothing else but establish throughout the land, it would still have claim to universal honour. The following is an accurate table of these schools, derived from the Ministero at Turin:—

Provinces.	Population.	Communes in each Province.	Communes having Schools.	Masters.	Mistresses.	Boys.	Girls.	Total Pupils.
Piedmont . . .	2,742,163	1,475	1,460	3,987	2,642	133,430	106,898	240,328
Liguria . . .	764,400	824	322	989	443	27,051	16,769	43,820
Lombardy . . .	8,026,588	2,267	2,186	3,654	2,401	128,300	118,590	246,890
Emilia . . .	2,127,105	368	359	1,287	428	40,138	25,007	65,145
Tuscany . . .	1,815,243	250	212	575	192	16,837	14,260	31,412
Umbria and Marches }	1,395,797	462	443	819	293	18,477	12,935	31,412
Naples . . .	7,060,618	1,850	1,755	1,850	867	70,103	35,425	105,528
Sicily . . .	2,223,476	362	292	669	163	154,468	5,120	20,588
Sardinia . . .	573,118	372	361	423	175	2,469	6,925	16,344
Total . . .	21,728,448	7,730	7,390	14,253	7,604	452,273	341,929	801,152

Analysing this table, we find that the total of teachers, male and female, amounts to 21,857. The number of pupils, male and female, to 801,152, or about one teacher to forty pupils. The number of schools, I learn from another authority, is—for boys 13,394, and for girls 7862; total, 21,256. Thus, there is a proportion of nearly three schools to each Commune, i. e. about two schools for boys, and one for girls; and there are only 340 Communes among the 7730 of all Italy, as yet, unprovided with schools. Of these last, half (as might be expected) are in Naples and Sicily. Doubtless the defect will shortly be remedied. The total number of pupils in the elementary schools, viz., 801,152, forms about a twenty-fifth of the whole population. It will be observed that the proportion of pupils to the population differs widely, however, in the different provinces. In Piedmont and Liguria there are 280,000 children at school out of a population

of three and a half millions, almost one scholar to eleven of the population. In Naples and Sicily there are only 126,000 out of nine millions, or only one in seventy-five. In Sicily, out of a million of females, only 5120 are at school, or one in two hundred.

The Elementary Schools of Italy are divided into higher and lower. There are for boys 826 higher, and 12,568 lower schools; and for girls there are 270 higher, and 7592 lower ones.

The course of education in the lower schools lasts for two years, and includes catechism, sacred history, reading, writing, Italian grammar, arithmetic. The course of the upper schools also lasts two years, and carries on the instruction given in the lower, with the addition of composition, geometry, geography, and physics, including natural history. In the girls' schools needlework is also taught to the pupils.

With very few exceptions, all the masters and

mistresses in these schools receive their salaries from the Communes to which they belong, and by whose authorities they are appointed. The law requires the Communes to provide gratuitous instruction for both boys and girls; and when any Commune is too poor to support such a burden, the Government grants subsidiary assistance. The Government budget for 1863 bore the sum of 2,317,472 francs for this and other educational purposes. Nearly one hundred thousand pounds is a liberal grant, assuredly, from a young nation struggling for its life; yet, alas! small enough beside the £15,000,000 for the army! There are Inspectors in each province, appointed to ascertain and report on the carrying out of the law regarding the schools in each Commune. The instruction given to the pupils in the elementary schools, both higher and lower, throughout Italy, is entirely gratuitous.

IV. The *Asili Infantili*, or Infant Schools, are the last branch of the Italian system of education. They are gratuitous, like the elementary schools, for which they are intended as preparatory. The teachers are young women, and much want is felt of training schools, to instruct them in their special tasks. The children of both sexes are mixed in these only of Italian schools, and only in the kingdom of Italy itself. In Rome, I have visited a very interesting little Infant School, supported by some benevolent gentlemen; and, on inquiring whether little girls might not be permitted to avail themselves of its benefits, I was told that the Papal government would at once close the establishment if so desperate and immoral an innovation were attempted as that of

mixing little girls from three to seven with little boys of the same perilous age!

On examining a carefully prepared MS. table of the Infant Schools in Genoa, kindly ordered by the Marchesa Doria, one of their chief patronesses, I find that there are in the town four Infant Schools, with twelve teachers and fourteen assistants, and 1100 pupils, 556 of the number being boys. In the beginning of 1863, 243 children passed from these schools into the Elementary Schools, of whom 90 could read in syllables, and 151 in the first reading book; 209 could write, and 95 could perform the rudimentary processes of arithmetic.

Besides all these schools, Normal, Elementary, and Infant, there are also adult evening schools opened in many towns for men. In the Genoese district there are no less than thirty-two such schools, with forty-six teachers, and about two thousand pupils. The expenditure for all these classes of education has certainly been made by the nation in a most liberal spirit. In Genoa, where the Report of the Communal Council of the *Assessori Deputati all' Istruzione* has been made with unusual exactitude, we find that in the past year the cost of the whole has been 346,490 francs, having risen gradually, year by year, since 1849, when it only amounted to 86,479 francs.

It will be conceded, I think, after reading the above account, that, at this labour of Hercules of educating a whole nation, the Government of the new kingdom is working "with a will." The results will doubtless appear in good time, in a generation of men and women qualified to establish on the broadest basis the true freedom and true civilisation of Italy.



THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, ATHENS.



THE present century has witnessed the establishment of four universities in Europe, viz. Berlin, Bonn, Munich, and Athens. Of the last and youngest, named originally after King Otho, —who, by the by, headed the first list of subscriptions with the handsome sum of £1500,—but now called *National*, the foundation-stone was laid in 1838, and the cope-stone so late as 1864.

A year before the foundation-stone was laid, however, the Greek University existed as a teaching body; and in 1839, a year after the foundation-stone was laid, it already counted twenty-five professors, for whom it found class-rooms in a very inadequate building under the Acropolis. In

1864, when the buildings were first completed, and the older portions of them thoroughly repaired, the National University, Athens, counted fifty-two professors, with twelve assistants, and one teacher, this last being a teacher of Turkish, and its students numbered 1060.

This rapid development of the university, out of all proportion, as it is, to the progress of the country in other departments, is highly characteristic of the Greeks, who still, as of old, "seek after wisdom," and find no employment so congenial as that of teaching, disputing, and declaiming by tongue and pen. Unfortunately, this academic ardour finds no counterpart in the fundamental department of manual labour; and many a time

has the wish been expressed, that the Greek government, taking a leaf from the book of ancient Rome, would construct roads, sewers, and aqueducts, and drain marshes; and that wealthy Greeks, besides or even instead of founding astronomical observatories and the like, would buy estates, build mansions on them, and farm them, as did the gentlemen of Rome long ago, and as do those of England now. By growing an everlasting crop of priests, lawyers, doctors, teachers, publicists, bankers, merchants, clerks, and penmen of every description—the swordsmen being thrown into the bargain—the Greeks will, no doubt, maintain their present influence in the east. But unless they turn their energies to productive industry, and achieve successes there, such as they can claim as distributors of wealth, intellectual and material, unless the men of the spade, and plough, and pruning-knife, and the men of the plane, and hammer, and trowel increase greatly among them in number, energy, and capital, it is not easy to see how, in this modern world, they are to form a solid and prosperous commonwealth.

For obvious reasons the Greeks modelled their university on the German system, which makes no provision for the residence of the students, and recognises impartially the four faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. The last mentioned includes, besides the philology, metaphysics, and mathematics, which constitute our Arts course, the quasi-medical subjects of natural history, botany and chemistry. Accordingly, the National University, Athens, bears a much closer resemblance to those of Edinburgh and Glasgow than to those of Oxford and Cambridge.

Ranking the faculties according to the strength of the professoriate in each, the weakest is the theological; then comes the legal; then the medical; last and strongest, the philosophical. However, owing to the decided medical affinities, the three subjects already mentioned as included in the philosophical faculty, the professoriate of this faculty, and of the medical, may be considered as of equal strength. The greater development of these two faculties is due to the circumstance that they receive students from the whole east, whereas only the kingdom of Greece sends students to those of law and theology.

In the programme of work for 1864, the four theological professors undertook to prelect on the following nine subjects: Hebrew, Hermeneutics, the Psalter, the Proverbs of Solomon, Paul's Epistle to the Romans, Christian Ethics, History of Dogma, the Liturgy, and Christian Antiquities.

In the other faculties, the programme of study is marked by an amplitude truly German. In that of law, for example, besides the inevitable lectures on civil and criminal law, Roman, Byzantine, and modern, there are courses on natural law, commercial law, political economy, constitutional law, and international law; and in that of medicine there are separate chairs for military surgery, and for the diseases of the eye and ear. In the Philological department of the Philosophical Faculty, there are nine Professors who lecture on Greek and Latin philology. Among the subjects announced are courses of lectures on the Phædo, the History of Greek Literature, the History of Ancient Art, the Political Antiquities of the Greeks, the Roman Satirists, History of Modern Philology, History of Ancient Philosophy, the *Æneid* of Virgil, the Life of the Romans, the Metres of the Greeks and Romans, the Greek Lyric Poets, the History of Greece and Rome, the History of Greek Sculpture, and the Mythology of the Ancient Greeks. The National University, Athens, has also all the usual appendages, as library, museum, infirmary, lying-in-hospital, astronomical observatory, and besides, an eye infirmary.

This university is the only one in the world where the lectures and examinations cost the students—no matter where they come from—nothing. The graduation fees, too, are very small compared with those of other universities. The current expenses are defrayed by government; and when the government purse is empty, the professors have just to add their teaching to whatever other services they may have rendered gratuitously to their country and race.

The university buildings, on the other hand, have been erected, not at the expense of government, but by public subscriptions among the Greeks everywhere, and the Philhellenes of the Continent; for not a single British town or name figures in the lists. The total expense has been £30,000; and the largest subscription, amounting to £5500, i. e. to between one-sixth and one-fifth of the total, was made in 1864 by Demetrios Benardakes, a Greek gentleman of St Petersburg. To the liberality of this gentleman, called forth and turned to account by a zealous Principal, Konstantinos Phrearites, the National University, Athens, owes the completion of its buildings, and the thorough repair of the older portions.

How urgent was the need of repair may be seen from the following description of the buildings, as they stood in 1863, Principal Phrearites himself being our authority:—"The eastern wing was ruinous, its roof merely of fire-proof cloth, the woodwork of it rotten, its walls cracked and dirty,

and its interior divided, by boards, into a multitude of small apartments, used by the officials of the Senate and House of Representatives.* The passages leading from this wing to the two courts were converted into urinals and dark privies. Of the galleries some were roofless, and consequently swam with water in winter; others were filled with ancient marble fragments, which the Antiquarian Society have accumulated pell-mell there, as in a free port. The central building was roofless, and full of valuable natural history specimens, which, of course, sustained serious damage as often as it rained. The courts were unpaved, and uneven, and in winter often so flooded as to be impassable. The whole building, unpainted outside, with the exception of the western wing, and full of holes, in which multitudes of wild pigeons built their nests, wore the melancholy aspect of a desolate mediæval ruin."

Besides the urgency of the case, Principal Phœarites put forth two special pleas in his circular appeal for subscriptions. One of them was founded on the services of the student-guard, in protecting property and maintaining order in Athens, when the people rose against King Otho, said guard having been organised by the university to the number of 600, and maintained for five months at an expense of £5000, of which only about £1000 was ever refunded. The other special plea was based on the national pride, which would be grievously wounded if the Ionian

youth, likely, after the union of their native islands to the kingdom of Greece, to flock in greater numbers than before to the National University, should find its halls in a shameful state of dilapidation, confusion, and dirt. But the times were bad, or at any rate evil, and this appeal was answered by a contribution from the whole Hellenic world of only £1000, scarcely one-sixth of the sum required. In this extremity Demetrios Bernardakes found his opportunity, and out of his single purse counted out more than the whole Hellenic race have contributed.

The National University, Athens, is, in a not unimportant sense, to the modern Greeks in their dispersion what the Olympic games were to the ancient Greeks in theirs, viz, a common meeting-place, an arena of generous rivalry, and a bond of union. In this point of view, the gratuitousness to all comers of the lectures at this university must be acknowledged a stroke of far-seeing policy. The national mind ascribes the deliverance of Greece from her Mahometan masters, chiefly to the power of their ancestral faith, and of their superior enlightenment; and from that same twofold power, chiefly, the national heart expects all good things in the future. Hence the cathedral and the university are the most speaking monuments of the Greek Revolution in Athens; and they are monuments in a double sense, being at once memorials of past achievements and promoters of future progress.

Correspondence.

SCOTTISH CERTIFICATED TEACHERS AND THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

SIR,—A communication on this subject from a parish schoolmaster of Ross-shire appeared in your last. As one who has taken all the steps he indicates, and who is now a graduate of the above university, I would ask a short space in your columns for a few words in addition and reply.

It is universally acknowledged that the training given in our normal schools is quite inadequate to qualify young men for our parish schools. There is hardly an advertisement for a schoolmaster in even the poorest parish of Scotland that does not require from candidates a knowledge of Latin, Greek, and French; and no normal school in Scotland is encouraged or even permitted to give instruction in these branches. There is surely something wrong here. If the State is to pay for educating teachers why not have them educated according to the re-

quirements of heritors, school managers, and the general public? This inconsistency, it is to be hoped, will be clearly brought out by the present Royal Commission; and if any action is taken in the matter, it will probably be to unite training schools for teachers to each of our universities. In the mean time, however, many students have been sent out certificated, who would be no true Scotchmen, if they did not wish to rise in their profession. That many of them do rise, and are preferred to our best parish schools in spite of the above deficiency, is a fact to be attributed either to their previous school education or to subsequent private study. Although as teachers of the common branches they generally force themselves into estimation, yet for want of some testimony to their classical attainments they always find their scholarship regarded, at best, with grave suspicion. To remedy this, aspiring young teachers used to leave their schools in charge of substitutes for the winter months, and attend the arts

* Since 1863, when the Legislative Chamber was burnt down, one wing of the University Buildings had been occupied by the Senate and House of Representatives.

classes of the nearest university; but in these days of school inspectors and Revised Codes, such a course would be impracticable. Hence the great advantage of having London University degrees made attainable by examination in stated subjects, without requiring attendance at college classes. So far, then, I quite agree with your Ross-shire correspondent, in the importance of this matter to certificated teachers, and I can say, from my own experience, not only that a London University degree is a distinction likely to be useful, but that the various examinations required for its attainment form an excellent guide and incentive to private study.

I fear there is one great objection to having a provincial examination held in Scotland. The sub-examiner requires a fee of £30, and the sum, together with suitable accommodation for holding the examination, must be guaranteed before the proposal can be entertained. Now, I think, that apart from some college or educational institution that may be interested in these degrees, it will be difficult to get any central committee to take upon them this responsibility. However, by advertising, it could be ascertained how many would be likely to come forward, say in June next, or the following December, and those interested could act accordingly. At the same time, even if candidates from Scotland should be obliged to go for examination to Leeds, Liverpool, or London, it seems to me that a week's residence in either of these cities would well repay the extra trouble and expense.—I am, &c.,

A PARISH SCHOOLMASTER.

Ayrshire. •

THE REVISED CODE AND SCHOOL FEES IN SCOTLAND.

SIR,—While the unsuitableness of certain provisions of the Revised Code to the educational arrange-

ments of Scotland is now pretty generally recognised, there is yet one circumstance in connection with it which does not seem hitherto to have attracted attention, but which is of sufficient importance, that I trust it will be referred to in the evidence which the Royal Commissioners are taking on the subject. I allude to the singular want of conformity that is noticeable between the requirements of the Code and the peculiar arrangements which prevail in this country for the regulation of school fees. The parochial schoolmasters and the teachers of our public schools generally are on their appointment to office furnished by the heritors or managers, as the case may be, with a certain definite scale of fees, whereby the different branches of instruction are only entitled to be charged. This scale is graduated according to the progress of the pupil, a particular fee being allowed for reading, an additional rate for writing, and a further charge for arithmetic. Such an arrangement is of course opposed to the sumptuary regulation which seeks to establish the principle of payment according to the means of the parents. But I wish on the present occasion to notice it in connection with the clause of the Code, which requires every child subject to examination, and if I am not mistaken, every child of whatever age in attendance at school, to be regularly instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic. The attainment of proficiency in the elementary branches is undoubtedly of the highest importance, but it is obvious that the teacher, in seeking to accomplish this great end in accordance with the system prescribed by the Code, must consent to a considerable loss in the way of fees, or exact the highest fee from every child, no matter what his standing in school may be, a proceeding which the authorities of his school clearly never contemplated. In either alternative, hardship or injustice must be the result.—I am, &c.,

A PARISH SCHOOLMASTER.

Notices of Books.

Greek Anthology. With Notes Critical and Explanatory. Translated by Major R. G. MACGREGOR. London: Nissen & Parker.

A comprehensive translation of the Greek Anthology into English has been an allowed desideratum. Scholars know how largely our English bards have rifled the Greek stores, but the new era of a good translation will open the treasure-house to unlearned searchers. And if Ben Jonson, Harrington, and many from their day till ours, have found it worth while to borrow honey from the countless flowers of Meleager's garland, and such like posies, why should not the free trade, inaugurated by a complete Eng-

lish version, assist in making those bright thoughts and happy conceits with which the Greek epigrammatists teem in the fullest degree *publici juris*? The end and aim is a sound one; and the accomplished gentleman who sets it before him for fulfilment, approaches his task with many special qualifications for it. In his preface, he tells us that it has been a life-long fancy; it clung to him as a soldier in the far East. It haunted him in his later days, as a London banker. After two or three partial blossomings, in 1857 and 1858, his study has borne ripe fruit in the present year, and it may be confidently pronounced that it is such as he need nowise be ashamed of. He modestly sets out by

saying that he is no scholar, without which frank intimation it may be doubted whether the suspicion would have crossed any one's mind, for it is difficult to find any internal corroboration of his self-estimate. He seems to us to have brought to his work quite enough of the scholar, very much of the poetic faculty, a lively humour, and a necessary knowledge of life and of the world, as it is and has been. And his execution of his task has been carried out on soundest principles; for, while he has omitted what is absolutely worthless or strongly objectionable, he has not recognised as "damnable" any iteration of epigrams by various hands on the same subject, deeming, we think wisely, that "variety in handling," as it was to the epigrammatists a contest of excellence, so to readers and students is an admirable and fruitful lesson in the art of poetry. We have been astonished, in making acquaintance with this translation, to find how truly, in the translator's words, "variety is born of sameness." No one, we suppose, has read the whole of the Greek Anthology from end to end continuously; or, if any have, it still will not have struck them so forcibly, till they looked upon the collected English translations, how various and how beautiful, though substantially the same in object, are the numberless epigrams on single subjects strewn richly through the delightful pages of the Anthology. For graceful specimens of this, we commend our readers to a wholesale examination of Part the Fourth, which comprises the dedicatory and votive epigrams. For a facetious and satirical specimen of this sameness we may quote, side by side, two well translated epigrams on a miser's repast, the 332d and the 370th of the 8d part or book; the first by Antomedon, the second by Palladas.

"Upon a goat's foot yesterday I dined,
With sprouts of dried hemp, old and yellow,
joined;
My liberal host—quick temper is his vice—
I name not, fearing much he'll ask me twice."

The miser, in the second epigram, that by Palladas, differs from him whom Antomedon pictures, only in accessories, and not in essentials or "substantials."

"Invite me not, a trencherman well-skill'd,
To boards, whose platters are with pumpkins fill'd.
The silver stuff set here one cannot eat,
The useless dishes but our hunger cheat.
To those who eat not shew thy silver bright,
Thou in thy plate admired, unstamp't and light."

Major Macgregor's preface prepares us for the sort of translation which his pages discover to us, to wit, a version faithful and forcible, aiming rather at Greek simplicity and quaintness, than at modern polish and over-refinement. But it is fair to say that his faithfulness never makes his verse prosaic, and that in translating the mass of epigrams, which

he sets before his readers, he reproduces the sentiments of the original as happily as he does accurately. Compare the following (part i. ep. 68) of Crinagoras with its original, or with other translations of it, and it will be found to hold its own in point of force, beauty, and pathos:—

"Alas! what first to say, what last to shew?

Alas! sole true word in life's every woe.

Gone art thou, dearest wife! whose beauty held

The wondering gaze, whose pure soul all excell'd.

Truly thy name was Protè: all had place

Second to thine inimitable grace."—*Jacobs*, v. 108.

We could point, did our space allow, to many similarly beautiful specimens from Major Macgregor's hand. But if he excels in the tender and pathetic, he is not deficient in the humorous, as an examination of the second part of his book would serve to shew. For example, his 60th epigram (part ii.) is what may be called an alphabetical specimen, the original of which, by Ammianus, runs thus:—

"εἰ μὲν τοὺς ἀπὸ Ἀλφα μόνους κίρκιας κατο-
ρῦσσειν

Λούκιε, βουλευτάς, καὶ τοῦ Ἀδελφὸν ἔχεις.

εἰ δ' ὅπερ εὐλογόν ἐστι κατὰ στοιχείων ἐδίωκεις

ἤδη σοὶ προλέγω, Ὀργίνης λέγομαι."

—*Jacobs* xi. 15.

We do not see how it could by any one be better rendered than in the version which we quote:

"If Lycius all our senators,
Whose names begin with A,
Will bury, let Adolphus first,
His brother, lead the way;
And if, as reasonable, for guide
He take the alphabet,
That mine is Zachary, betimes
I bid him not forget."

Nor is the epigram of Palladas, bearing on the change of a single letter in a word, beginning *Pō* καὶ Λάμβδα μόνον πύρακας πολάκων διορίζει· (*Jacobs*, xi. 323) a whit less effective in Major Macgregor's happy reproduction, p. 185, ep. 330.

"Raven or Craven? either English name
Save in one letter only, is the same:
Both bipeds equally are foes of ours,
This shames us living, that when dead devours."

In a volume of the bulk which the present work exhibits, it is marvellous to find so many epigrams so well and evenly done. It must be borne in mind that former admirers of the Greek anthology have taken here one specimen and there another. It would be strange if such selected portions did not present richer and more choice beauty than a whole garden, so to speak, and that, to some extent, unweeded. For such is the collection before us. For its size, its bulk, and its character of materials, it may be pronounced a most creditable and satisfactory work. Its best parts we take to be the first,

second, fourth, and sixth. The Planudean epigrams (part viii.) are as a mass unequal to the rest. But for all and each the translator has done his best, with a loving and enthusiastic zeal. It is hardly likely that he will care to select from his *opus exactum* but we could well believe that a little volume of the choicest specimens would delight as much, and sell as well, as many of the modern collections of epigrams which are commonly unauthenticated, and may as well be ancient as modern, for all that the collectors can tell us about them. Indeed, one part of the value of the book before us consists in its assistance to us in tracing the parentage of epigrams. One of the happiest conceits of Muretus, for example, is this ending of an epigram :—

“O dolor, o quid jam miseri speretis amantes,
E mediâ vobis nascitur ignis aquâ.”

which turns out to have originated in an epigram of Meleager (*Jacobs*, v. 176), translated in p. 21. ep. 120, of Macgregor's Greek Anthology. The parallel lines are

“Much marvel I how Cypris, first who came
From the blue wave, produced from water flame.”

We will conclude a too brief notice of an interesting book, with one or two suggestions as to emendations required by the Greek sense. In Ep. III. v. 5 (p. 20), surely “Weeps she who partner'd then my couch” is hardly an equivalent for ἀδάγ' ἔχσι δάκρυα τὰ δάκρυα. Why not read, “Are tears sole partners of her couch?” In Ep. 192, we find “And still the same her girlish pride” given as an Englishing of μίμναι καὶ τὸ φρονήμα τὸ παιδικόν, which to us seems to mean “Still waits she wanton lovers.” Nor are we by any means certain that Major Macgregor's version (p. 50, ep. 268) of the obscure words, δάκρυλος ἄως (*Jacobs*, xii. 50), “The rosy morn our cup-bearer shall be,” is a true exponent of the sense. The phrase is explained by Liddell and Scott to indicate “a quarter of an hour before sunset;” and it would be safer to translate

“For soon the rosy morn will over be.”

But these are mere microscopic discoveries of what after all are not blemishes, so much as inexactnesses. The general character of the volume is such as to do high credit to its translator, and to place him much higher in the rank of scholars, than his modesty would suffer him to dream of claiming a seat.

Goldsmith's Traveller. With Explanatory Notes, &c., &c. By WALTER M'LEOD, F.R.G.S., M.C.P., &c., &c. London: Longmans. 1864.

Mr M'Leod has here brought together a great deal of useful information about Goldsmith, and the *Traveller*. The “Life” is extracted from “Knight's Cyclopædia of Biography;” the “Critical Remarks” are from Macaulay, Aikin, Cary, Whiteside, Forster,

and Walker; and many of the notes consist of illustrative passages from Goldsmith's prose works. We have mainly to do with the grammatical and analytic notes; and in noticing these we shall follow our jottings in the margin.

Line 1. “*Remote, unfriended,*” &c. No note as to the grammatical connection of these adjectives. Many less difficult constructions have painfully elaborate notes. For example,

17. “*Blest be those feasts with simple plent crowned.*” Note, “Crowned is the past participle of the verb to crown, and forms with *are* understood the compound verb *are crowned.*” Why supply *are*? and if we supply *are*, we must also supply *which*. *Crowned* is the participle, and as such is an attribute to *feasts*.

30. “*And find no spot of all the world my own.*” *My own* requires a note, as it presents a real difficulty to learners. It is an indirect object to *find*, in apposition to *spots*.

118. “*That blossom but to die.*” The note says, “*but* = *only* is an adverb modifying the verb *blossom.*” We say it modifies *to die*.

178. “*He sees his little lot the lot of all.*” Another case of indirect object, requiring a note.

198. “*With many a tale repays the nightly bed.*” The note says, “The expression is elliptical: repay *the peasant* for the nightly bed by repeating many a tale.” Not at all. It is simply an example of metonymy, *bed* taken for the kindness which grants the bed.

166. “*Where rougher climes,*” &c. “A noun sentence to *survey*” in the preceding line. This is good. We are glad to see that Mr M'Leod adheres to the rational principle of naming clauses according to their functions.

217. “*Unknown to them, when sensual pleasures cloy,*

To fill the languid frame with finer joy.

Unknown those powers,” &c.

Mr M'Leod goes quite wrong in his note on the construction here. He transfers “*those powers*” from the second *unknown* to the first; and construes, “Those powers are unknown to them to fill the languid frame with finer joys.” What that may mean he knows best. To us it sounds very like nonsense. The sense obviously is, “To fill the languid frame with finer joy, when sensual pleasures cloy, is (a thing) unknown to them.”

227. “*But not their joys alone thus coarsely flow.*” Note, “in full: but it is not their joys alone that thus coarsely flow.” Why make two clauses out of one? The sense is complete without the extension. Mr M'Leod has a weakness for filling up fancied ellipses. Thus also,—

235. “*Morals such as play.*” Note, “in full: Such *morals* as *those* as *which* play.” Not at all necessary; *such* is an adjective, and *as* is a relative, subject of *play*.

257. “*Theirs are those arts that mind to mind*

endar." Note,—“*Theirs* is a possessive pronoun, plural number, nominative case to *are*.” Not at all. *Theirs* is the complement of *are*; the predicate being *are theirs*, the subject, those arts. This error is the more remarkable, that Mr M'Leod gives the clause correctly enough in constraining the whole passage.

269. “*For praise too dearly loved.*” Note, “*Loved*, a participle, used as an adjective defining *praise*.” Is it so remarkable that a participle should be used as an adjective? Is it not the very nature of the participle to be a verbal adjective?

279. “*The mind still turns where shifting fashion draws,*

Nor weighs the solid worth of self-applause.”

We cannot congratulate Mr M'Leod on the specimens of Paraphrase he has introduced into this edition. These simple lines are blown out into this high-sounding stuff. “The mind, disregarding the substantial worth of its own sincere approval, is ever guided by the changing dictates of fashion.” For “*nor weighs*,” we have “disregarding;” for “*solid*,” we have “substantial;” for “*self-applause*,” we have “its own sincere approval;” for “*turns where draws*,” we have “is ever guided;” for “*shifting fashion*,” we have “the changing dictates of fashion.” Now we do not say, are these changes for the better? but do they make the meaning plainer? If not, why the change?

283. *Metinks*. It should have pointed out in the note that *me* is the dative.

292. “*Sees an amphibious world beneath him smile.*” Note, “*World* and (to) *smile* are the objects of the verb *sees*.” It should have been pointed out that *world* is the object, and *smile* the indirect object or complement.

319. *Lawn*. Note, “*Lawn* is the same word as *land*.” Doubtful. *Lawn* is the same word as *lane* and *lo-in* (Sc), derived from Dutch *Laen*, an open space between fields; or Welsh *Llan*, a clear place. *Land* is from Dutch *Land*.

349. “*As . . . decay*, an adverbial sentence,” &c. Mr M'Leod never specifies the kind of adverbial sentence. This is an omission.

It will be seen from these notes that Mr M'Leod's annotations are not faultless. It must not be inferred, however, that they are all faulty. Many of the notes are excellent, and most of them are useful and good.

A letter to the Dean of Canterbury, on the Homeric Lectures of Matthew Arnold, Esq., Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. By ICHABOD CHARLES WRIGHT, M.A., late Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, Translator of Dante. London and Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. 1864.

Mr Wright, on the eve of publishing a third instalment of his translation of the *Iliad* into blank

verse, has thought proper to answer some statements made by Professor Arnold, in his *Homeric Lectures*, in depreciation of blank verse, and in praise of English hexameters, as a vehicle for Homeric translation; and he has thrown his answers into the form of a letter, addressed to the Dean of Canterbury, in acknowledgment of the compliment paid him by the Dean when the latter dedicated to Mr Wright his translation of the *Odyssey*.

Mr Wright does not discuss the general question; he merely cites some of the more eminent authorities upon it; and in particular, he shews that the authority of the late Dr Hawtrey, Provost of Eton, claimed by Professor Arnold, is really on the opposite side. The accomplished provost was indeed once, like Professor Arnold, in favour of English hexameters, but changed at length his views, as the following extract from a letter written by Dr Hawtrey to Mr Wright in 1860-61, clearly shews:—

“If it were possible in our language to make a translation in hexameters—in which the accent would satisfy an unlearned ear, and the quantity a learned criticism—I should still believe that, as I wrote in 1848, a better representation of Homer and the Greek and Elegiac poets might possibly be produced than has yet appeared. But longer consideration has convinced me that the production of such a translation, if not impossible, is yet, from any of the attempts we have yet seen, of either original or translated verse, in the highest degree improbable. . . . I had once a notion—but I now entirely disavow that heresy—that Homer might be represented in hexameters. I am now convinced that it is a great error, and that our language is incapable of giving naturalisation to a metre in which rules of quantity are indispensable. Indeed, I can no longer like the German system, which substitutes accent for quantity, and which English imitators have adopted. ‘*Evangeline*,’ to my ear, is pretty poetry, but no metre at all.”

French Reader, for the Use of Colleges and Schools, containing a Graded Selection from Modern Authors, in Prose and Verse; and Copious Notes, chiefly Etymological. By EDWARD A. OPPEN, Professor of Modern Languages at Haileybury College. London: Macmillan & Co. 1864.

The selections in this French Reader are made from a wide range of authors, and are all of them interesting in themselves. The peculiar feature of the work is the etymological character of the notes. To those who have learned Latin, French is an easy language; but still it frequently happens that the Latin scholar fails to notice the Latin word in the French. Mr Oppen supplies him with help in tracing the changes that have taken place. Occasionally, however, his derivations are questionable, as when he derives *physionomie* from *φύσις* and *νόμος*,

and not from the Greek *φυσιογνωμονία*. Mr Oppen gives also short accounts of the writers from whom he has taken his extracts. His work in this way conveys a good deal of information on the history of French literature.

Speculative Philosophy: an Introductory Lecture Delivered at the Opening of the Class of Logic and Rhetoric, November 1. 1864. By JOHN VEITCH, M.A., Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in the University of Glasgow. William Blackwood and Sons, Edinburgh and London. 1864.

This lecture discusses the origin of Speculative Philosophy, defines the provinces of its three divisions, exhibits the demands of the human mind for such a philosophy, shews its influence on prevalent opinions, and winds up with an attack on Positivism. It is an able lecture, but labours under the disadvantage of too wide a subject, and therefore is deficient in proof where proof is most needed. No doubt this proof will be supplied to Professor Veitch's students in his subsequent lectures. The statements of the lecture are remarkably clear, and it can therefore be recommended to those who wish to have accurate notions as to what service Psychology, Logic, and Metaphysics profess to render to the students of them.

Introductory Lecture, delivered at the opening of St Mary's College, St Andrews, November 21. 1864. By JOHN TULLOCH, D.D., Principal and Professor of Theology, St Mary's College, in the University of St Andrews. William Blackwood and Sons, Edinburgh and London. 1864.

This is a noble lecture, well deserving a very extensive circulation. It commences with a fine delineation of the character of the late Professor Ferrier as a thinker and a teacher. We extract a passage indicating wherein the success of all real teaching lies:—

"Many men can do good and able work in the world, but there are only a few anywhere, in any institution, who invest their work with that nameless personal influence which captivates while it instructs the young, which quickens their intellectual enthusiasm, and expands and refines their feelings in the process of education. No one was ever more gifted with this rare endowment than Professor Ferrier. There was a buoyant and graceful charm in all he did—a perfect sympathy, cordiality, and frankness, which won the hearts of his students, as of all who sought his intellectual companionship. Maintaining the dignity of his position with easy indifference, he could condescend to the most free and affectionate intercourse; make his students, as it were, parties with him in his discussions, and while guiding them with a master hand, awaken at

the same time their own activities of thought as fellow-workers with himself. There was nothing, I am sure, more valuable in his teaching than this—nothing for which his students will longer remember it with gratitude. No man can be more free from the small vanity of making disciples. He loved speculation too dearly for itself—he prized too highly the sacred rights of reason, to wish any man or any student merely to adopt his system or repeat his thought. Not to manufacture thought for others, but to excite thought in others, to stimulate the powers of inquiry, and brace all the higher functions of the intellect, was his great aim. He might be comparatively careless, therefore, of small processes of drilling, and minute labours of correction. These, indeed, he greatly valued in their own place. But he felt that his strength lay in a different direction—in the intellectual impulse which his own thinking in its life, its richness, and clear, open candour, was capable of imparting. He conducted his thinking, as it were, in broad day. The student could see every turn and winding of it; and the frankness of his manner gave a singular attraction to the frank boldness of his intellect, and more than anything, perhaps, explained the mingled love and admiration with which he was regarded. And yet, with all his easy cordiality, so manly was he, and so commanding the natural relations of his mind, to others, that I do not fancy it could have entered into the head of even the most presumptuous student to take any liberty with him."

The main portion of the lecture is devoted to the Aspects of present Theological Controversy, especially Anti-Supernaturalism and Subjective Criticism. In discussing anti-supernaturalism he shews how necessary the supernatural element in Christianity is, but at the same time maintains that the only satisfactory way of treating the opposite opinions is to "meet argument by argument, and assertion by proof."

In the section on Subjective Criticism, Principal Tulloch argues vigorously for the right of inquiry. The spirit of his remarks may be gathered from the following passage:—

"But while this is true, it is by no means true that human traditions and opinions about Scripture survive the same continued process of thought and inquiry. It is one thing to believe that Scripture contains a Divine revelation, and another thing to identify our inherited beliefs, it may be our prejudices and conceits, with this revelation. It is one thing to bow to the witness of God, and quite another thing to have the imperfect and one-sided representations of man forced upon us. I may accept God as my teacher in Scripture, and need no further evidence that He does teach me there than the fact that I have found it to be so—that my highest reason as well as my deepest wants are in consonance with the truth I find there. The words

there spoken have proved themselves 'spirit and life' to me when no other words were of any use; but I am not bound to accept another's reading of Scripture for me. I am bound, indeed, to listen reverently to the reading of the Church; I may have accepted voluntarily, as a member of a definite branch of the Church, a definite reading of certain points discriminated and marked off from heretical exaggerations or deductions of the truth in former times; but, withal, I retain as a Protestant the exercise of my own Christian reason in the use of the Holy Scripture. I cannot and dare not refuse to hear, in all its fulness, unhindered by any foreign influence, the voice of my Divine Master."

Hymns from the German. Translated by FRANCES ELIZABETH COX. Second Edition. Revised and Enlarged. Rivingtons, London. 1864.

This is one of the most interesting collections of hymns which we know. Many of them are exceedingly beautiful. "Most of these," the translator says, "were pointed out to the translator as 'national treasures' by the late Baron Bunsen." The translator has discharged her duty with singular fidelity. The special characteristic of her translations is faithfulness, and she has succeeded wonderfully in rendering almost word for word, notwithstanding the difficulties presented by rhyme and metre. At the same time the translations have a great deal of poetic merit; indeed, as much, if not more, than the originals. The German is printed on one page, the English on the opposite; a feature which, "it is hoped, will recommend this volume to young students of German," and ought to recommend it to old students too. A short account of the writers is given at the end of the book. It is beautifully printed and beautifully got up. As a specimen we extract

HYMN FOR SUMMER.

- "Earth has nothing sweet or fair,
Lovely forms or beauties rare,
But before my eyes they bring
Christ, of beauty source and spring.
- "When the morning paints the skies,
When the golden sunbeams rise,
Then my Saviour's Form I find
Brightly imaged on my mind.
- "When the day-beams pierce the night,
Oft I think on Jesus' light,
Think how bright that light will be,
Shining through eternity.
- "When, as moonlight softly steals,
Heaven its thousand eyes reveals,
Then I think: Who made their light
Is a thousand times more bright.
- "When I see, in spring-tide gay,
Fields their varied tints display,
Wakes the awful thought in me,
What must their Creator be!

- "If I trace the fountain's source,
Or the brooklet's devious course,
Straight my thoughts to Jesus mount,
As the best and purest fount.
- "Sweet the song the night-bird sings,
Sweet the lute, with quivering strings
Far more sweet than every tone
Are the words 'Maria's Son.'
- "Sweetness fills the air around,
At the echo's answering sound;
Far more sweet than echo's fall,
Is to me the Bridegroom's Call.
- "Lord of all that's fair to see,
Come, reveal Thyself to me;
Let me, 'mid Thy radiant Light,
See Thine unveiled glories bright.
- "Let Thy Deity profound
Me in heart and soul surround;
From my mind its idols chase,
Weaned from joys of time and place.
- "Come, Lord Jesus! and dispel
This dark cloud in which I dwell;
Thus to me the power impart,
To behold Thee as Thou art."

A Calendar for the Correction of Dates, both in the Old Style and in the New, and Applicable both to the Past and to the Future. By JOHN GAIRDNER, M.D., F.R.C.S., Edinburgh.

A description of this invention, without a diagram, would necessarily be vague and confusing. We must therefore refer those of our readers who may be interested in the matter to the thing itself; and along with it will be found an explanation of the principles of its construction, and directions how to use it, which are given with great clearness.

Its object is to check the date of any remarkable event, certain elements being known in regard to it. As the inventor points out in his description, "there are in every date five elements, any one of which may be wanting, or may be obscurely legible from decay of ink or paper, or may be blotted out, or may from the first have been erroneous, owing to the carelessness of the writer of the manuscript, or of the editor of a printed book. These are, the century, the year of that century, the month, the day of the month, and the day of the week." By using his calendar, he shows that if any four of these elements be known, the remaining one may be found.

The invention is simple and ingenious, and may prove of service to the historian or the antiquary.

An invention similar to this in principle, but differing in construction, was submitted some years ago at a meeting of the Royal Scottish Society of Arts, by Mr H. G. C. Smith, Mathematical Master in Heriot's Hospital, Edinburgh. It was referred to a committee, who reported favourably as to its ingenuity, but who expressed their opinion that it would not supersede the simple method constantly practised of effecting the same purpose by the use

of "cross tables." In consequence of this report, Mr Smith abandoned the idea of publishing it; but it is due to him to state that he accomplishes the same objects by his invention as Dr Gairdner does by his.

Arithmetic, for the use of Schools and Students preparing for Examination. By J. FRAYSELL, B.A., Trinity Hall, Cambridge. London: Longman, Green, & Co.

Key to the "Standard" Arithmetic. By J. S. LAURIE. Edition of the "Standard" Series of Reading Books, &c. Thomas Murby, Fleet Street, London.

In the first work, the author's object, as indicated in the preface, is to provide a text book adapted to the wants of students preparing for the various competitions and military examinations.

It has been carefully and methodically prepared. The different rules are not only stated with clearness and conciseness, but the principles upon which they are founded are laid down and illustrated with considerable tact.

The application of each rule, as it is given, is illustrated by a few appropriate examples, worked out, and the different steps of which are explained. The exercises, instead of being introduced in the text, as in ordinary cases, are placed at the end of the book, in order corresponding to that in which the different rules have been treated.

These are very numerous, well selected, and present great variety. The work embodies a number

of important hints to the senior student, and fully carries out the object intended by the author.

The second work is more a collection of answers than a key — answers to the exercises in the "Standard" Arithmetic by the same author.

The Vicar of Wakefield. By OLIVER GOLDSMITH. London: Thomas Murby. 1864.

This is another of Mr Laurie's Shilling Entertaining Library. It is nicely printed, and the illustrations are fair. Mr Laurie has done well in placing this most delightful of genial books in his library, and he has given it to us in a neat, handy shape.

The Psalter: containing selected Psalms from the Common Prose Version; arranged and marked for Chanting; together with a Collection of Chants by the best Composers. Sol-fa Edition. T. Nelson & Sons, London, Edinburgh, and New York. 1865.

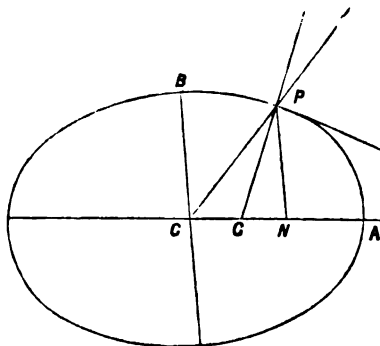
We give our most hearty commendation to this attempt to introduce and extend chanting in our schools. There can scarcely be a doubt that the earliest form of uttering hymns in the church was chanting; and on many occasions, chanting is at once more appropriate and more convenient. We trust, therefore, that this little work, the first "portion of a larger Manual, which will be published in parts," will have an extensive circulation. "A twin edition, in the old notation, will also be issued."

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

II. MATHEMATICAL.

NOTES.



18. *Solution by H. C.*—

Let CA = a, CN = z

CB = b, NP = y

∴ GN = $\frac{b^2}{a^2}z$ (by a property of the ellipse)

Tan PGN = $\frac{a^2}{b^2} \cdot \frac{y}{z}$ ∴ PGN = $\tan^{-1} \frac{a^2 y}{b^2 z}$

Tan PCN = $\frac{y}{z}$, ∴ PCN = $\tan^{-1} \frac{y}{z}$

CPG = PGN - PCN

= $\tan^{-1} \frac{a^2}{b^2} \cdot \frac{y}{z} - \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{z}$

= a maximum.

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \frac{d(\text{CPG})}{dx} &= \frac{d\left(\tan^{-1} \frac{a^2 y}{b^2 x} - \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}\right)}{dx} = 0 \\ \therefore \frac{d\left(\tan^{-1} \frac{a^2 y}{b^2 x}\right)}{dx} &= \frac{d\left(\tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}\right)}{dx}, \text{ but} \\ \frac{d\left(\tan^{-1} \frac{a^2 y}{b^2 x}\right)}{dx} &= \frac{a^2 b^2 x^2}{b^4 x^3 + a^4 y^3} \cdot \frac{d\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)}{dx}, \text{ and} \\ \frac{d\left(\tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}\right)}{dx} &= \frac{x^2}{x^3 + y^3} \cdot \frac{d\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)}{dx} \\ \therefore y &= \frac{b}{a} x\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Tan. latitude} = \frac{\text{PN}}{\text{GN}} = \frac{\frac{b}{a} \cdot x}{\frac{a^2}{b^2} \cdot x} = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{280}{229}$$

$$\therefore \text{Lat.} = 45^\circ, 7', 29''.$$

Solved also by *Cycloid* (Edin.)

19. Solution by Carac.—

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Tan } x &= \frac{\text{Sin } x}{\text{Cos } x} = \frac{x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \&c. \dots + \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}}{1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^6}{6} + \&c. \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{2n}} \\ &= x + \frac{a_2 x^3}{3} + \frac{a_4 x^5}{5} + \&c. \dots \text{ (by hypothesis.)} \\ \therefore x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \&c. \dots + \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} &= \left\{ 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^6}{6} + \&c. \dots + \frac{x^{2n}}{2n} \right\} \\ &\quad \left\{ x + \frac{a_2 x^3}{3} + \frac{a_4 x^5}{5} + \&c. \dots + \frac{a_{2n+1} x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \right\}\end{aligned}$$

and taking the co-efficients of x^{2n+1} on each side of this identity, we get—

$$\frac{1}{2n+1} = \frac{a_{2n+1}}{2n+1} - \frac{a_{2n-1}}{2n+1} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{a_{2n-3}}{2n+1} \times \frac{1}{4} - \frac{a_{2n-5}}{2n+1} \times \frac{1}{6} + \&c.$$

$$\text{transposing, we get—} \frac{a_{2n+1}}{2n+1} = \frac{a_{2n-1}}{2n+1} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{a_{2n-3}}{2n+1} \times \frac{1}{4} + \&c.$$

and multiplying both sides by $2n+1$, we get—

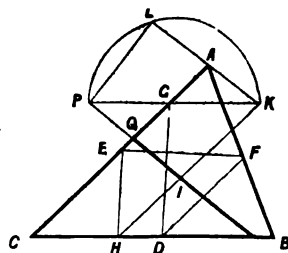
$$a_{2n+1} = \frac{(2n+1)2n}{2} a_{2n-1} - \frac{(2n+1)2n(2n-1)(2n-2)}{4} a_{2n-3} + \&c.$$

20. Solution by Dr Rutherford, F.R.A.S., sent by "F.R.A.S."—

Let P be the given point. ABC the triangle, and D.E.F. the middle points of the sides. Draw PGK parallel to CB, and join DG. Through E draw EH parallel to GD, and HK to CA, meeting PG produced in K. On PK describe a semicircle, and in it place PL = PG: join KL and make HR = KL. Draw PQR:—QR will bisect the triangle.

Let QR and HK intersect in I; then the triangles PGQ, PKI, HIR are obviously similar; and since $PK^2 = PL^2 + LK^2$ and $PL = PG$, and $HR = LK$, it is evident that the triangle PIK is equal to the two triangles PGQ, HIR. Hence, the quadrilateral QGKI = triangle HIR; and \therefore the triangle CQR = the parallelogram CK. But GD and EH are parallel, $\therefore GC : CD :: EC : CH$, hence the parallelograms CK and CF have a common angle C, and the sides about that angle reciprocally proportional \therefore the parallelograms are equal, and \therefore triangle CQR = parallelogram CF, which is half the triangle ABC.

[Solved also by *Tyro* (Kirriemuir), and *H. Parade*.]



QUERIES.

20. *Proposed by H. Parade.*—A policeman gives chase to a boy 200 yards a-head running at the rate of 150 yards (or steps) per minute. To come up to him, the pursuer extends his step n inches more than a yard, but takes n^2 seconds more than a minute to his 150. Find n that the chase may last a minimum time.

21. *Proposed by H. Parade.*—A weight P is suspended by a cord passing over a fixed pulley at S , and fastened at R . SR makes an angle θ with the horizon — the n th part of RV becomes horizontal by attaching a weight W at V . Find W and the tension of the part RV .

22. *Solution requested by A.*—A point P is given between the two straight lines AB , BC (not parallel). Required to draw through P the shortest straight line terminated by AB , BC

Education at Home.

THE EDUCATION COMMISSION. — The Education Commission continued its sittings on each Saturday and Monday, up to the middle of December, when an adjournment was made to the 16th of January. Representatives of nearly all the religious bodies, and of almost all the phases of the education question, have been before the Commission. As we announced in our last, the Educational Institute of Scotland, and the General Association of Free Church teachers, were each asked by the Commission to nominate four representatives who might be examined. The Standing Committee of the former agreed to nominate Dr Knox, St Ninians; Mr A. C. Weir, Glasgow; Dr Gloag, Edinburgh; and Mr Dickson, Liff (President of the Institute). Of these Dr Knox and Mr Weir have already been examined. A *pro re nata* meeting of the Free Church Teachers' Association was held, at which the names suggested by the Committee were recommended. These were, Mr Kennedy, Training College, Moray House, Edinburgh; Mr Smith, Haddington (President); Mr Purves, Musselburgh; and Mr Rattray, Aberdeen. Mr Kennedy and Mr Purves have been examined. It is expected that the remaining representatives of both bodies will be summoned immediately after the Commission resumes its sittings. Teachers in various parts of the country have memorialised the Commission to allow them to appear by representatives. How these applications have been treated we have not heard; but the course adopted by the Commission shews how important it has been that proper organizations of the profession, embracing the whole country, were in existence. Had there been no bodies such as those referred to, in all probability the representatives of the profession, summoned by the Commission, would have been merely the nominees of some of the religious sects. While local and district societies are of the utmost importance and use, still only those of national extent, and possessing a central organization, are available in such a crisis as

the present. As to the line of investigation adopted by the Commission, the following paper, issued to parties summoned for examination, will be of interest:—

"Heads of Examination.—Education Commission.—I. The operation of the existing Parochial Schools, and Privy Council system of Grants-in-Aid, in providing Education in Scotland for that portion of the community for whom the Parish Schools were originally set on foot; and whether the combined operation of these systems is sufficient to meet the requirements in this respect of the different parts of the country? If not, in what respect are they defective? Whether the Privy Council system of Grants-in-Aid tends to the establishment of Schools in localities where they are not required for the educational wants of the district? If so, to give instances. Whether the Privy Council system overtakes, or is calculated to overtake, Highland and remote districts? The same as to populous districts in large towns. If not, to state instances when it does not overtake such districts. Whether the present system of Grants-in-Aid is denominational, in the sense of confining the education in the Schools to the children belonging to the denomination to which the School may be attached?—II. Whether any other plan of a more uniform and national character, based upon an extension of the existing Parochial system, or otherwise, and better fitted to overtake the educational wants of the country, could be substituted for the Privy Council grants? If so, give general outline of plan; and, in particular—(1.) Whether it should be carried on by local management exclusively, or by local management with a certain control by a Central Board? (2.) Whether provision should be made by Parliament for religious instruction in the Schools?—III. Old and New Code. (1.) Operations of existing Privy Council system in Scotland. (a.) On Elementary Education. (b.) On Higher Branches of Education.

(c) On the Training of Teachers in Normal Schools.
(2) Probable effect of the Revised Code on the above three heads."

From this document, the course pursued by the investigation is pretty evident. Teachers would confer great benefit on the cause of education who could give precise and specific evidence on any of the above points. From all we can learn, the Revised Code, and payment for results, are by no means favourites of the Commissioners; and if the professional representatives have only done their duty, then we will probably be spared coming to closer quarters with Mr Lowe's pet projects in Scotland. With a view to settle more definitely than has yet been done the actual amount of school accommodation, and the actual number of children under instruction, a schedule has been issued to each Registrar, along with a request that he should visit all the schools in his district, and collect the required statistics. For this he is to be remunerated on a very economical scale. He is enjoined to take the return of each school to the clergyman with whose congregation the school is connected, and to ask him to sign the return, if he considers it correct. A copy of the schedule and of the circular to the Registrars was sent to each clergyman in the country, along with a request that if he should not consider the Registrar's statistics correct, he would send an accurate return in the duplicate schedule transmitted to him. Unfortunately this copy letter to the Registrar enclosed to the clergy does not bear on its face that it is so, and not a few of our clerical friends imagined that the request came to *them* to collect the statistics, at the rate of *one shilling* sterling for each school visited, *sixpence* for each mile travelled, &c. The result has been diverse. In some quarters, indignation at the insolence of the Commissioners; in other, exultation at the class selected to give trustworthy information; and in at least some, a determination to discharge the duty, and win the promised reward. So that the Secretary of the Commission need not be astonished if he figures as a defender in some Scotch Small Debt Courts. Undoubtedly the circulars leave too much to be inferred, and even omit to make provision for the case where the Registrar does not visit the school at all.

LORD STANLEY AND THE SOCIETY OF ARTS' LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—Lord Stanley, in presenting the prizes and certificates awarded by the Society of Arts to the successful candidates, at the Mechanics' Institute, Manchester, expatiated upon the various agencies at work for the improvement of education, and contrasted their advantages. He dwelt upon the independence of the Society's Scheme, because there has been a decrease in that wholesome jealousy with which the middle classes of England have always been in the habit of looking upon any attempt of the executive to extend its

functions. He said nothing against State help to boys' and girls' schools, for we have to make up long arrears created by centuries of neglect. Private means would have been totally inadequate for this. But he held that when the necessity ended, the interference should end too. It is pleasant to draw upon the Treasury. It is like swimming with corks, very easy, but you never make a swimmer. With official interference there is an attempt to establish uniformity, about the biggest mistake that can be made in dealing with men and women. There is also the political risk that you give the possessors of power an authority in local and personal matters which they are the better for not having. Lastly, you ought not to want such help. If the Government prizes were done away with, as much or more would be contributed by private agency. Optional inspection could do no more than what is done by the Society of Arts and the Universities—neither costing a shilling to the public. Indeed, if none of our venerable universities and endowed schools existed, English gentlemen would still contrive to get as good an education as now, because they know the value of it and would be ready to pay for it. When the same feeling becomes general amongst the working classes, the same result will follow. Keep then your independence, keep your self-reliance, and never fear but you will do well.

THE RT. HON. H. A. BRUCE, VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.—In distributing the prizes at the Liverpool Institute, Mr Bruce gave his views on the duties of the pending Middle Class School Commission. He agreed with his predecessor in office, Mr Lowe, in thinking that one of the most important questions to be submitted was, "What use can be made of the endowments that are given to the public schools of this country?" Another point the solution of which he looked forward to with very great interest was, "The best manner of generally raising the character of the schools of the country, without any undue interference on the part of the State." It seemed to him that only one solution could be found to that difficult question, viz., that all these schools should be submitted to one general system of inspection, made by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and London, and having reference to the general conduct of the school.

PITOWNERS AND EDUCATION.—Lord Lytton gives the following as the actual statements of certain of the coal owners in the Black Country; "That they disapproved of night schools; that the more a man was educated the worse workman he was; that they should for the future decline to assist the working classes in any way; that education and the penny papers had done all the mischief, and that public houses were the proper places for

working men to meet in ; that they should leave the working classes to themselves for the future ; that he more was done for the working classes, the more ungrateful they were, and if education went much further there would soon be no colliers to be had ; that the utmost a working man should know was to read his Bible ; that education had filled the men's heads with all kinds of nonsense, and that the best educated men misled others."

What a text for comment upon the masters ! Are *they* the best educated, and therefore misleading others, or has education filled *their* heads with nonsense ? Are *they* accustomed to do what they allow a working man ought, "read their Bible," to wit. Did they find the more a *master* was educated the worse master he became, or are the masters not men ? Is it a threat or a privilege they intend when promising no further assistance (!) to the schools of their neighbourhood ?

ROYAL SCHOOL OF NAVAL ARCHITECTURE—UNDER THE DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE AND ART.—The Committee of Council have followed up the opening of this School, with the announcement of a scheme of public lectures, to be delivered at South Kensington Museum, by the most eminent men in their respective departments that the profession of naval architecture and of the associated sciences can produce. Amongst other names are those of the Astronomer Royal, on "Magnetic Errors in Iron Ships ;" the Chief Constructor of the Navy, on "Ships of Wood and Iron ;" Dr Fairbairn, on "Strength of Materials ;" Dr Woolley, Dr Percy, the Principal of the Naval School, the Surveyor at Lloyd's, Professors Pole and Rankine ; each giving from two to twelve lectures—the fee for the whole being £5.

EDUCATION OF GARDENERS.—The Royal Horticultural Society have made the following announcement respecting the education of gardeners. "*Examinations and Certificates for Gardeners.*—Central examinations for gardeners in theoretical and practical gardening will be held annually at South Kensington ; and local examinations will be held in the country. Certificates of competency and prizes will be awarded at these examinations."

AN EXHIBITION of models of naval architecture, hitherto in Somerset House vaults, has lately been open at the Museum. The series begins with the "Great Harry," and is continued down to the iron ships now building in the private and Government yards.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—Middle Class Education.—The prizes and certificates awarded in

Oxford, were delivered to the successful competitors by Mr Walter, M.P., in the Council Chamber, Oxford ; by the Bishop of Bath and Bristol, at Bath ; and by the Vice-President of the Committee of Council and Education, at the Liverpool Institute. The Report prefixed to the papers that had been circulated by the University of Oxford, shewed that the progress of these examinations was steady. For the last four years the number of candidates had been about 1000. The senior candidates were falling off in number, and generally the work of the seniors had not been, in comparison, equal to the juniors ; only 4 per cent. at one time reaching first-class, and the highest per centage of first-class seniors being 7 per cent. In 1858, half the candidates were rejected in preliminary subjects, and 63 per cent. altogether failed to get certificates. In 1864, less than a quarter failed in preliminary work, and only 33 per cent. altogether were rejected, thus just reversing the numbers. Educationally, this subject of middle class schools has been the chief topic to excite the public mind during the past month. The looming Commission, Government Inspectors, Local Examinations by the Universities, Prize Schemes, Educational Unions, have had their advocates and disbelievers delivering themselves, both on the platform and in the press. S. G. O. has come forward as the champion of the middle class schoolmasters, and advocate for the good feeding of our mutton-eating schooling—for which they ought to thank him. Anyway these interparliamentary utterances help us to a clearer insight into this difficult problem, and in so far prepare the way for wise and satisfactory legislation in the end.

OXFORD.—Regius Professorship of Greek.—The controversy relating to the Greek Chair has been animated during the past month. The Dean of Christ Church, in a letter upon the subject, raises an important doubt whether "it can be shewn that the Dean and Chapter hold lands specifically granted for the purpose of paying the Professor." Nevertheless, he courteously invites argument on the matter, and if it be shewn that they have revenues charged with this duty, he offers "immediately to the Chapter to augment the stipend now paid, according to a fair estimate of the changed value of money, and thinks the Chapter will accede to the proposal." This has led to a learned correspondence in the *Times*, in which those who wish to be "well up" in a matter that has engaged so much public attention may learn the whole history of Christ Church and the Greek endowments.

CAMBRIDGE.—A noble benefaction for the encouragement of students in law has just been settled in St John's College. The late James M'Mahon, of the Inner Temple, bequeathed the whole of his estate for the establishment of scholarships, in such

form and manner as his executors might deem most advantageous. The sole acting executor of the will is Mr Bros, of the Oxford Circuit, who, in the exercise of the discretion reposed in him, has settled the fund, amounting to £20,000, in his own college, under regulations carefully framed with a view to the encouragement of the most meritorious graduates, who may be destined for the pursuit of the law in either branch of the profession. The value of each studentship is £150 a-year, and is tenable for four years, or until election to a fellowship. Two studentships are already established, to one of which an election will take place in Michaelmas Term next, and to the second in the same term in the following year. Other studentships will be established on the falling in of annuities; and it is expected that eventually there will be one studentship vacant every year.

The *Local Examinations* of the University began on the 12th December, at the several centres throughout the country. In London, the examination takes place under the superintendence of Professor Liveing and the Rev. A. B. Chalker, at Burlington House, the University of London having kindly lent their large room for the purpose. The total number of candidates is 844. London furnishes 114—seniors, 37; juniors, 77.

The *Duke of Devonshire*, as Chancellor of Cambridge, heads the subscription list for building a new hall for the Union with £100. Cambridge proposes to have as fine a place for training its public speakers as Oxford.

King's College, Cambridge, will next year, for the first time in its history, become an open college, its scholarships and fellowships being no longer confined to the alumni of Eton. This is one of the results of the Education Commission.

THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH ENDOWMENT ASSOCIATION.—On November 28 took place the first annual general meeting of this association, the Lord Provost in the chair. Dr Muir, the honorary secretary, read the report of the General Committee, the most important parts of which are as follows:—

"Up to the present date subscriptions have been received to the following amount:—

Donations and life subscriptions, .	£1206	0	0
Annual subscriptions, .	103	12	0
Total, .	£1309	12	0

"The special remit of this Committee to the Acting Committee in regard to the application of a portion of the annual income of the Association for the institution of fellowships or scholarships, in terms of the 11th section of the Constitution, led to a report being laid before this Committee, containing certain recommendations, which, after mature deliberation on two separate occasions, were adopted by this Committee in a modified form. These recommendations,

which are as follows, are now submitted for the consideration of the Association:—

"1st. That the whole of the life subscriptions, all donations, and all annual subscriptions above £5, placed unconditionally at the disposal of the Association, should be held as a fund for permanent foundations.

"2d. That it is advisable to appropriate a portion of the income of the Association derived from annual subscriptions of £5 and under to the support of fellowships, in terms of the 11th section of the Constitution.

"3d. That it would be inexpedient to commence the scheme with fewer than two fellowships, each to be held for three years; the annual value of each not to amount to less than £100.

"4th. That in view of the expediency of making a commencement of the scheme as soon as possible, the Acting Committee be authorised, as an interim arrangement, to apply the whole or any portion of the annual income arising from annual subscriptions of £5 or under, and the interest derived from capital, to the endowment of two such fellowships, under regulations and conditions as prescribed by section 10 of the Constitution.

"5th. That any remainder of the annual income should be added to the fund for permanent foundations.

"6th. That the portion of the annual income to be applied in supporting fellowships should be so appropriated as to guarantee to each fellowship so instituted the annual payments undertaken by the Association for the whole term of three years during which it is to be held."

The Lord Advocate moved the adoption of the report. The resolution was carried unanimously.

UNIVERSITY FOR WALES.—The sum of £50,000 is to be subscribed towards the foundation of a University for the people of the twelve counties, and an appeal is to be made to the House of Commons for aid in the matter. A considerable portion of the money is already promised; and future meetings of the promoters of the scheme are expected to enable them to complete the sum above-named.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—Professor Alexander J. D. D'Orsay, B.D., English Lecturer at Corpus Christi, Cambridge, has been giving a course of lectures in public reading at King's College, to which the schoolmasters of London have been invited, but of which they have very partially availed themselves. Mr D'Orsay takes every possible view of his subject; and if teachers and clergymen only thought the subject as important as Mr D'Orsay rightly does, our schools and our pulpits would soon exhibit a vast improvement in this department. The points of the lecturer's course are the use and abuse of elocution, the faults of common utterance

in school reading, the formation and management of the voice; attitude, breathing, pitch, tune; the nature of inflection; articulation, and the cause and consequences of indistinctness; the cure of the miserable style of reading in most schools; pronunciation, with examples in London and provincial

errors, in letters, accent, and tone; emphasis and false stress on pronouns, prepositions, substantive verbs, and auxiliaries; pauses, and impressive reading: monotony and mannerism; best modes of recitation; question of "speech days," &c., &c.



Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—*Dura lex, sed lex.*—Some time ago the parish schoolmaster of Cognac was reprimanded by the authorities for teaching a little Latin. Latin being one of the subjects excluded by law from the programme of *primary* instruction, the parish schoolmaster who teaches it is held to encroach upon the domain of *secondary* instruction. In these circumstances, the Cognac schoolmaster engaged an assistant who was legally entitled to impart the so-called secondary instruction, and handed over the Latin class to him. This step has now brought down upon the Cognac schoolmaster a second reprimand, as if he had committed, in the face of authority, a serious act of insubordination. When educational matters are perfectly regulated, it would seem that, besides only certain persons being allowed to teach certain subjects, even those may do so only in certain places or in certain circumstances.

Heterodox talent.—M. H. Taine, who, not many months ago, was refused a prize by the Academy, on the ground that, in his review of English literature, he had made fixed law over-ride human freedom, has just been appointed professor of *Æsthetics* and *Art-history* in the School of the Fine Arts.

An eloquent preacher.—The Advent preachings in Notre Dame, Paris, have brought into notice a bare-foot Carmelite, named R. P. Hyacinthe, who promises to become a worthy successor of Ravignan and Lacordaire. In his opening discourse he proclaimed the educational movement of the day to be one of the grandest in history, and one from which truth had everything to expect, just because it aimed at the universal diffusion of knowledge. By displaying charity instead of passion, by preferring discussion to anathema, by giving to criticism its own name instead of nicknaming it impiety; in short, by acknowledging the good faith of his adversaries, and thereby setting his own above suspicion, he has won the respect of infidels as well as believers, and is listened to with sympathy by both.

Pronunciation of Greek.—According to the *Temps*, the committee appointed by the *Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres*, at the request of the Minister of Public Instruction, to consider the present pronunciation of Greek in schools, are unanimous in reporting that "the pronunciation, if not ancient at

least old, which prevails among the Greeks in our own time, ought to be substituted for the fantastic and undeniably faulty pronunciation still taught in colleges, though long since rejected by the majority of the most learned Hellenists."

Middle-class education.—The public mind is becoming the longer the more satisfied with the purpose of Government to establish in the *instruction secondaires*, i. e. in middle-class education, two parallel sections, one of which shall prepare for the professions called liberal, and the other for commercial, industrial, and agricultural pursuits. Authority is even called in to confirm the purpose of the hour. Rabelais, Montaigne, Charron, Malebranche, Fleury, La Chalotais, Diderot, and Rolland d'Erceville are appealed to as having denounced, from the sixteenth century downwards, the too great uniformity of the teachers' programme, and they are accordingly claimed as patrons of the proposal to adapt the lessons of the school to the destination in life of the pupils.

Reform of the Baccalauréat.—Cramming has become so crying an evil, that the programme of examination for the *baccalauréat* is henceforth to be no other than the programme of the public classes which prepare for the *baccalauréat*. For many years the regular work of the classes has been more or less neglected for the study of examining manuals; under the system now introduced, the whole preparation will consist in thoroughly doing all school work.

Government neglect.—Here is a Jeremiad, extracted from the *Temps*, over the neglect by Government of the highest educational institutions of France:—

"The public establishments devoted to literature and science ought to be provided with buildings and endowments on the most liberal scale, but their actual condition is a shame to us.

"The Institute buildings, occupied only in part by the Institute itself, have a monumental appearance outside, to which the inside by no means corresponds. The public hall is the most inconvenient in Paris, and that in which the members meet privately is hardly decent. Some of these buildings are to be thrown down to make way for Rennes Street. The Mazarine library, which occupies part of the Institute buildings, has indeed a splendid reading-room,

but most of its treasures are stored away in dark passages and lumber-rooms.

"The Imperial library cannot, for want of room, give the public the benefit of all it contains. A sort of tower, as useless as ugly, has just been added to it, and there is being built, at great cost, a spacious hall for mere *dilettante* readers, which seems a ridiculous idea. Justice cannot be done to the public and to the vast stores of the Imperial library till the adjoining houses in Vivienne and Colbert Streets are purchased and pulled down.

"The St Geneviève library has offered inadequate accommodation from the very day—not yet distant—when it was opened. The buildings of the Arsenal library are at present in course of extension, but the mean hovels that cluster round it form a danger that ought to be removed.

"The Observatory, which has never been useful to astronomy, cannot accommodate the Board of Longitudes, which remains, consequently, without any fixed local habitation.

"The Natural History Museum has for many years been in need of additional galleries in which to exhibit the collections now crowded together in its storerooms.

"The Normal School may, indeed, be content with its present buildings; but those of the legal and medical schools, and of the Sorbonne, urgently need extension."

Experimental Society.—In 1819, a society was formed in Paris for the purpose of finding out, by experiment, the best mode of instruction; and a school, called *École Orthomatique*, was set up, in which experiments continued to be made till 1837, when the building was sold for £240. This sum was then invested at 3 per cent., and has so increased that it now yields about ten guineas per annum. The few remaining members of the Society have agreed that this sum shall henceforth be annually divided between the private elementary male teacher and the private elementary female teacher, in each of the twenty wards of Paris in succession, whom the local committee of elementary instruction in each shall judge most worthy of such a donation. Private teachers being regarded in the light of experimenters, the funds of the Society will in this way still be applied to the furtherance of its original object.

Prussia.—School Punishments.—In a recent ordinance regarding school punishments, the authorities in Merseburg, Prussian Saxony, range the punishment thus: 1, a warning look; 2, an uplifted finger; 3, a word of reproof; 4, a threat of corporal punishment; 5, corporal punishment itself. Corporal punishment is to be inflicted, not whilst the culprit is still among the forms and desks, but after he has come out from among them to a full space in the school-room, and generally after the lessons are over. The instrument of punishment is to be a birch of

small twigs, or in serious cases a supple cane, no thicker than the little finger. Girls may be struck only on the back; boys on the back and seat; but in no case may either back or seat be uncovered for punishment. The use of a cane thicker than the little finger, or of a ruler, all striking about the face and head with the hand, the fist, or a book, and all tearing at the hair, the ears, or any other part of the body, are forbidden; so are all opprobrious epithets, and all attempt to attach a nickname to the culprit. Every instance of corporal punishment, with the grounds and the amount of it, must be entered in the school register; and should the teacher desire to inflict severer corporal punishment than is allowed above, he must apply to the district inspector, and await his answer.

ITALY.—Statistics.—In the beginning of the scholastic year 1862-63, there were 939,234 children in the Italic kingdom receiving instruction. That comes to only one in three of the children between six and twelve years of age, and compares ill with the state of things in Prussia, where between the same ages three in four receive instruction. But it is a great improvement on the previous state of things in Italy, and, compared with the statistics of the previous year, shews an increase of 138,032 pupils, or of nearly one-seventh.

The farther south in Italy, the poorer is the attendance at school. Thus, reckoning only the children who ought to be at school, the attendance is:—

In Turin,	10 in 15
„ Milan,	10 „ 16
„ Central Italy,	10 „ 50
„ Naples, best parts,	10 „ 56
„ Naples, worst parts, }	10 „ 120
„ Catania, in Sicily, }	10 „ 150
„ Trapani, in Sicily,	10 „ 150

The Merseburg correspondent who makes the above communication, refers, by way of contrast, to the record kept in the seventeenth century by a Suabian teacher named Haberle, of the punishments inflicted by himself during fifty years of office. Haberle administered

911,527 blows with a stick.
124,010 strokes with a birch.
20,909 taps and raps with a ruler.
136,715 slaps with the hand.
10,230 slaps in the face.
7,905 boxes on the ear.
1,158,800 raps on the head.

22,763 Notabenes with the Bible, the Catechism, the hymn-book, and the grammar, making a grand total of over 2½ million punishments.

By way of supplement, Haberle adds, that he made 777 boys kneel on peas, and 613 on a triangular stick; also that he made 50,001 boys wear the dunce's cap, and 1707 hold the birch on high!

Needlework.—In all the country elementary schools of Prussia, girls are henceforth to be taught sewing, knitting, and darning during two hours a week; and all finer work, as embroidery, is expressly forbidden.

ASIA MINOR.—*Greek Liberality.*—M. Georges Perrot, in his recently published reminiscences of a journey in Asia-Minor, states that, in one small town, he found the Greek population paying £75 a year to the teacher of their elementary school, and £100 a year to the teacher of their high school, who was thus placed nearly on an equality, in respect of income, with a major in the Turkish army.

COCHIN-CHINA.—*Elementary School.*—The governor of the French possessions has decided on establishing, in the chief centres of population, elementary schools, in which the children of the natives shall be taught to write their language in European character.

ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION.—*Educational Progress.*—The French *charge d'affaires* at Buenos Ayres writes that, under the present Government, that of General Mitre, primary instruction is being rapidly

extended throughout the country, the municipalities actually vying with each other in the construction and ornamentation of new schools. In 1863, no less than £64,000 was devoted to the building of schools in the single province of Buenos Ayres; and in 1864 the sum devoted to the same object was somewhat larger.

MADAGASCAR.—*Missionary Schools.*—The Roman Catholic missionaries and the sisters of St Joseph have now six schools in Madagascar, four at Tananarivo, and two at Tamatava. Instruction is given in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, French, geography, history, and music. The girls are besides taught sewing and washing. The pupils, who number about six hundred, belong to the free population exclusively, the owners of slaves, in consistency with their maxim, "a slave is not a man," forbidding the children of their slaves to attend. However, the female slaves of the royal household are sent to the missionary workrooms to learn sewing and embroidery, which latter art is so much in honour among the men, as well as the women of Madagascar, that many officers embroider their uniforms with their own hands, and that elegantly.



Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editor, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.—At the monthly meeting, held 14th December, at the College, Queen Square, Bloomsbury, Dr Brewer in the chair, Dr Hodgson, Fellow and Vice-President, read an elaborate report, translated from the French, of the two days' discussion of the International Congress, that met at Brussels a little while ago. Dr Hodgson observed, that the very form of the question precluded any decision being arrived at by the Congress, for it was presented, "How can we, *without* taking from the present time given to classics in our schools, give greater attention to the study of the modern languages?" If, however, no decision was arrived at, the report contained the thoughts and arguments of the master minds of Europe upon the relative advantages of classical and modern language instruction. Incidentally, in the Congress, there arose the topic of international schools, and the best method of conducting them. It was suggested that a European committee should be organised, of delegates from every country; that two model schools should be established in each country as types, for middle class and advanced instruction. The ad-

vantage thought to be gained by these schools is in bringing different nations face to face, thus teaching them to know each other, and, by consequence, to exchange national prejudices for mutual friendship and intercourse.

In France, such schools are already organised, and some progress has been made in electing delegates, charged with the organisation of similar schools elsewhere. The European committee referred to is not to be nominated by the governments, but to be the free initiation of the peoples. At the same time, the invaluable assistance that governments and the learned societies are able to render will be gladly accepted. The European committee will be charged with the duty of fixing the principles upon which the international schools should be founded. The duty of carrying out the details in each country would be performed by national committees.

The report, in itself the condensation of many arguments for and against, gave rise to a discussion at the College of Preceptors, of a very animated nature, supported by Dr Hiemann, Dr Brewer, Dr Hodgson, Mr Watson, Mr Jones, and others. It

appeared to be the general opinion of the meeting, that the age required a revision of methods and of routine in the teaching of classics; that we must accept present history as it is, and arrange for the teaching of an enormous class, who, in former times, were not taught at all, and who now require other than classical knowledge.

It seemed admitted that much might be done by devoting the earlier school-life to the modern languages, and to science, and delaying the teaching of classics till twelve or thirteen years of age. In the same way science and modern language might be arranged so progressively that the complaint of a decadence of scholarship in our day, from too comprehensive a curriculum, and that, in the attempt to make living encyclopedias, we only produce mediocrities, would have no foundation in fact. With thanks to the lecturer and chairman, the meeting closed.

At the monthly meeting, the second Wednesday in January (7.30), Mr Jones will read a paper on "Science teaching in Schools."

On the second Wednesday in February, Mr Siddons will read a paper on the "School Reading of America," with extracts from the books in most common use there. Mr Siddons is the grandson of

Mrs Siddons, the great actress, and has spent five years in America.

NAIENSHIRE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The first ordinary meeting of this Association was held in Anderson's Hotel, Nairn, on Saturday, 3d December, when it was expected that Mr Falconer, parochial schoolmaster, Croy, the President, would deliver an inaugural address, which, however, he was prevented from doing through indisposition. The Vice-President, Mr Penny, parochial schoolmaster, Nairn, being also indisposed, a President for the day was appointed, and a set of rules for the guidance of the Association, which had been prepared by a Committee who, along with the office-bearers, were appointed at a preliminary meeting, were read, and after some discussion, approved of. Mr M'Leod, Free Church Institution, Nairn, the Secretary, was appointed to read a paper at next meeting. A Committee was also appointed to take notice of any important matter relating to education or the interests of teachers which may come under notice in the interval of the ordinary meetings, with power to call meetings for the discussion of such matters. Business being transacted, the members dined together in the Hotel.

The Month.

THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH ENDOWMENT ASSOCIATION.—There cannot be the slightest doubt that the Scottish people have not yet come to feel the need of the existence of a learned class among them. Neither high nor low are inclined to exert themselves. The most complete proof of this is furnished by the report which we present in our Intelligence of the first annual meeting of the University of Edinburgh Endowment Association. Many of the members of this Association are gentlemen of great wealth. They might be supposed to take some interest in the fostering of high learning in Scotland; yet the sums which they have subscribed are insignificantly small compared with the occasion; and indeed, most of the large churches in Edinburgh would raise double or treble the amount in one year if it were required for a special purpose, such as a new place of worship. How much more powerful the ecclesiastical influence in Scotland is, is manifest from another endowment scheme. Dr Muir, the honorary secretary of the University Association has been indefatigable in his labours, and has set a noble example of generosity in his own person, yet he

has managed to raise only £1200. Dr Candlish, with no great effort, as we understand, has already raised £12,000 for the endowment of the Theological College of the Free Church in Edinburgh, principally in sums of £1000. The contrast gives rise to many reflections.

The same apathy which doles out £10 or £100 where a £1000 would be given by a Free Churchman of less wealth, for Free Church purposes, characterizes the proceedings of the Society. Two fellowships are to be instituted, but there is not the slightest guarantee that these fellowships will to any considerable extent encourage high scholarship. Already several scholarships have been instituted, and how have they worked? An examination is instituted, the best student obtains the prize; he pockets the money, and does as he likes. If a student obtains £100 for four years, surely some demand should be made on him, some account of the learned leisure which he thus obtains. He should be bound to devote himself to a special study, or to give an account of his travels, or perform some literary or scholarly work which would satisfy the University authori-

ties that he has made a good use of the means with which he has been furnished. At present he merely proceeds with the work in which he would have engaged, though he had not gained the scholarship; and in fact, these scholarships have proved merely helps to theological students.

But a wider question presents itself here. Suppose that the scholarships were really to encourage and foster high learning, what would be the result? We shall suppose that the scholarship is intended to foster classical studies. The candidates for it will have to come from the medical, the legal, the theological or the scholastic professions. We can scarcely expect them from the medical or legal, for the loss of four years to a legal or medical student, even if he had been able to afford the time for the requisite examination, would be a serious professional loss. Nor would it fare much better with the theological student; he cannot afford to spend four of the best years of his life principally in classical studies. He is anxious, like other men, to be settled in life. Besides, if he were to spend four years in classical studies, there is a great probability that he would not enter the Church at all, for the Church would not please him, and he would not please the Church, so that the effect of the scholarship would possibly be to turn him adrift on literature or teaching. The only students, then, who could take the classical scholarship would be those destined for the scholastic profession. But how few are there who ever become teachers in Scottish burgh schools from express intention! We suspect there are none. There are no rewards in Scotland for scholarship. Most of the burgh schoolmasters are not paid so well as probably the cooks of some of the members of the University Association. The only rewards are the professorships in the universities, but these professorships are now be-

stowed only on those who have turned their backs on their own universities, and gone through an Oxford or Cambridge course. Five of the six professorships of classical literature in the three Universities in the south of Scotland are occupied by Oxford or Cambridge men, and Scotland has no more credit in their scholarship than she has in that of Paley or Jowett.

DR KARL SCHMIDT.—This well-known educationist died at Gotha on the 9th of November. We know nothing of the personal life of Dr Schmidt, but we know him well, and value him highly as a writer. All his productions are characterized by a beauty and simplicity of style which are rare in German works on Pædogy. His "*Buch der Erziehung*," a series of letters to parents, teachers, and educators, goes over the whole range of education—physical, intellectual, moral, and religious—in a deeply suggestive and devout spirit. His *Gymnasial-Pädagogik* is one of the best treatises on the education which ought to be given in higher schools, and the methods to be pursued, and we wish much that it were in the hands and hearts of every teacher in classical schools. His principal work is his "*Geschichte der Pädagogik*," in four volumes. He begins with the eastern nations, goes carefully into the educational ideas and practices of Greeks and Romans, then surveys the Middle Ages, and concludes with the most thorough analysis of the thoughts of modern thinkers on education. It is written in a popular style, and exceedingly readable. We do not know any book where one could get a more distinct picture of the evolution of ideas in the various epochs of the world's history. And to the teacher it is a work of the deepest interest, very suggestive, and exceedingly instructive.



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

THE CONFUSION OF TONGUES.



EVER, since the tower of Babel was built, has there been such a discordant babbling of half-known tongues as in this Western Europe of ours, in our own time. The ancient Greek, as a general rule, spoke but one language. Herodotus *may* have learned Egyptian. He often speaks of conversations which he had with the priests during his stay in Egypt; but the fact that he was accompanied by an interpreter throws doubt, to say the least of it, on his linguistic attainments. If Plato lived at Heliopolis for thirteen years, as Strabo was told, one would think that he *must* have learned it. But traditions as to the residences of great men, centuries afterwards, are not much to be trusted; and it is remarkable that Plato nowhere says anything himself to justify us in assuming that he made what would have been an unusual, and, as such, a noteworthy acquisition. With these two possible but very doubtful exceptions, there is, so far as we know, no reason to suppose that any Greek of the great period applied himself to the "study of a foreign language and literature." Such a man as Xenophon must, of course, have learned a little Persian, but it is probable that he learned just as little as possible.

After the conquests of Alexander, matters were no doubt different. Men learned more, and thought less. But even then, it was the conquered and not the conquerors who generally became bi-lingual; and in any case, the amount of acquisition being limited to the necessities of the situation, would rarely exceed two languages.

The Romans, during the later ages of the Republic, no doubt, cultivated Greek as an accomplishment. We all know how vain Cicero was of his Greek; and no one can read an Ode of Horace without seeing that he too was very willing, on all suitable occasions, to call his Athenian studies to remembrance. But even men like Cicero and Horace knew only two languages, and never wished to know more. Where a Roman had supervened on a Greek conquest and colonisation, naturalised citizens of Rome, if of native birth, and at all connected with official life, probably knew three. If St Paul knew Latin, he would be an example in point. Alexandria, more than any other of the ancient centres of civilisation, was devoted to critical and grammatical studies, but there is no reason to suppose that, as a general rule, even a cultivated Alexandrian knew anything but Greek. Dionysius Thrax had probably very simple-minded notions about comparative philology. It was the same in Byzantium, even after the destruction of the western empire. Though the Greek empire remained for ages, the shadow as it were of the vanished substance of Roman power and grandeur, it was wholly Greek. The laws of Rome were administered through the medium of translations; and it was by translations, if at all, that men who still boasted of being Romans, read the pages of Livy and Tacitus, and the Commentaries of Julius Cæsar. Professional interpreters, and a few merchants, or rather ship-masters, in the islands more particularly, such, for example, as Rhodes, were still the only linguists. No one thought of learning a foreign

language unless he positively required it for practical purposes; and such continued to be the case during the whole course of the middle ages. The inroads of the northern tribes introduced a wholly new class of languages, and must have compelled many persons whose fathers knew merely one classical language, or at most two, to acquire in addition a sort of colloquial acquaintance with some rude Gothic, or Lombard, or Slavonic dialect. But in the vast majority of instances the process was no doubt reversed, and it was the barbarian intruder who learned and corrupted the classical language with which he came in contact. The learned class, for such there always was, relatively at least, and more especially the clergy, both in the east and in the west, preserved in something like purity the classical languages which their respective churches had inherited. But even the fathers of the church for the most part knew only one of these languages. Origen no doubt learned Hebrew, but it is very doubtful if he knew Latin; and quite certain that Augustine's acquaintance with Greek was of the scantiest kind.

Some slight knowledge of Greek during the middle ages was, however, in all probability by no means so rare an accomplishment in Western Europe, as we are in the habit of supposing. In Italy particularly, the living speech of a neighbouring people, and that people still the most refined and cultivated in the world, must have been known to many. Nor was there any Chinese wall that divided the empire of the East even from the more distant kingdoms of the West. There were more comings and goings in the middle ages than those who date the era of travelling from the railway mania in 1846 are at all aware of. That Pope Vitalian should have appointed an Asiatic Greek to be Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of the Anglo-Saxon Church in 668; that the said Primate should have come laden with Greek MS., and should have taught Greek to his clergy, and rooted it so thoroughly, that half a century afterwards Bede not only learned it himself, but was able to speak of it as known to many surviving disciples;—these are perhaps accidental occurrences. But the history of most European countries will be found to record similar accidents. The trading relations of the sea-port towns of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, of Venice, Trani, Amalfi, Naples, Genoa, Pisa, Marseilles, and of the towns of the Spanish coast, Barcelona for example, with Constantinople, were extensive and continuous; the Crusades brought the West in contact with the East; and after the Norman conquest, hundreds of Anglo-Saxons took military service under the Greek

emperors. The Varangian Guard was mainly composed of men of Teutonic race; and though their habits were anything but studious, many of them must have learned Greek as a spoken language, and carried it along with them to their northern homes. Still, notwithstanding all these circumstances, it is quite certain that a knowledge of Greek was rare in Western Europe even amongst the learned down to the period of the revival of letters. Thomas Aquinas, as an Italian of high family, may have known it; but there is every reason to believe that the vast majority of the schoolmen, down to the time even of Dominic Soto and Suarez of Grenada—Aristotelians and Platonists though many of them were, of no mean temper,—were contented to read Aristotle and Plato in Latin. After the revival of letters, or rather after the dispersion of the Greeks consequent on the taking of Constantinople, three languages, as a general rule, came to be the portion of the learned. A vernacular tongue, more or less Romanic or Teutonic as the case might be, was spoken and written, but written loosely for mere domestic or local purposes. Greek was read, but scarcely written at all; and Latin was spoken, read, and written, as the sole means of international communication, as well as for all scientific and learned purposes.

But it was the Reformation which really led to the cultivation of the modern languages. This result it effected in two directions: 1st, By breaking up the Western Church, it put an end to the supremacy which had hitherto belonged to the old language of the empire, in which its services were celebrated; and, 2d, by giving the Scriptures to the people, in the spoken dialects, it laid the foundation of a vernacular literature in each separate country. One by one, the modern languages took their place alongside of the two great ancient languages of Eastern and Western Europe; and one and another was added to the languages which men were forced to acquire. In place of one language like the Greek, two like the Roman, or three like the Mediæval European, the modern European must learn *five* at the very least, and ought to learn six or seven, unless he is willing to be shut out from some corner of the earth where thought is progressive, invention is busy, and experience is rich in instruction or in warning. Nor is it at all likely, or indeed even possible, that matters should stop at the point that they have now reached. Already, within the limits of our own generation, the researches of the learned have vindicated for another ancient language claims on our interest scarcely inferior to those of the so-called classical languages, and Sanscrit has become a recognised branch of a learned education. The claims of

Hebrew may possibly be confined to the churchman as of old; but our intercourse with the East is daily giving to the modern forms of the Semitic, and for an Englishman, above all, of the Indo-Germanic languages, an importance which they never possessed for Europeans in any former age. Chinese and Japanese we may possibly escape for some time to come; but, in our own Europe, it is plain that Russian at no distant date will take its place beside the Teutonic and Romanic languages, and introduce us to a wholly untrodden field of linguistic toil. In the course of another half century, two languages, at the most moderate computation, will be added to those which it is at present deemed requisite for an educated European to acquire.

All this has hitherto been represented to us purely as an advantage which our generation enjoys over former generations, and which future generations will enjoy in still fuller measure over ours. Every new language that is cultivated, every fresh national literature that springs up, is an inheritance, we are told, that has fallen to mankind; and unless we are prepared to throw away our birthright, we must strive to take possession of it by every means in our power. International schools and colleges, and other contrivances unknown to our ancestors, are consequently being fallen upon to aid us in our hopeless endeavours to make head against our growing wealth.

Is this really, then, a true representation of our position? Is the power and activity of the majority of men, whether for scientific or practical purposes, promoted by the time and energy which even now is devoted to the acquisition of different languages; or, if not, is there any means by which we can economise them without detriment to the position of individuals, or loss to the societies of which they are members? These are the questions which ere long we shall have to answer, and it is perhaps not even now premature that we should consider what is to be the nature of our reply.

The arguments in favour of the acquisition of languages are so well known, that we need scarcely recapitulate them; and it is the less needful that we should do so, because there is not one of them that we think it necessary to controvert. We admit in the fullest manner that there is no more improving mental exercise; that it can be properly prosecuted only by comparing languages with each other; that the knowledge of the language is the only true passport to the literature, and the only real introduction to the domestic and social life of a people; and that the thoughts and habits of every new people whose acquaintance we make,

reveal to us new views of human life, and afford to us fresh insight into the scheme of God's government. We admit, farther, that this is as true of the ancient as of the modern world,—nay, we hold that, the stages of civilization being equal, the amount of instruction which we may anticipate from studying the language, literature, and modes of life of a people, will, in general, be proportioned to the extent to which the external circumstances of that people differ from our own. But what are the considerations which we must place in the opposite scale? Now one of the first and most important, as it appears to us, is this, that all the advantages we have enumerated as springing from the study of languages are dependent on these languages being acquired, if not perfectly, at least with a very considerable approach to perfection; whereas the more languages are multiplied beyond a very limited number, the less perfect does their acquisition become, and, in point of fact, as matters stand with us already, most of us know the five languages of which we boast very imperfectly. In saying so, we do not refer to the revelations of the English School Commissioners as to the average acquaintance of Englishmen with the ancient languages. Such a fact as that a boy who has spent years in writing Latin verses should be unable to translate a page of the simplest Latin prose, is intelligible only on the assumption that pedantry has taken the place of common sense, amongst English schoolmasters, to an extent that to us in Scotland is almost incredible. But take a modern language, and that the language which, with the exception of our own, most of us know best,—namely, French. That a majority of the so-called educated class in this country may fairly and honestly be said to be able to read French, is proved by the fact that the sale of French books is large, and that indolent, self-indulgent, and stupid persons of both sexes turn over their pages for their amusement. The power of speaking it fluently and intelligibly is by no means so common, but it is still very general; and those of us who are old enough to contrast the performances of our countrymen on the continent with what we knew them twenty years ago, will probably admit that it is somewhat on the increase. But when it comes to writing French,—not in such a manner as that it may be understood by a hotel-keeper, but that it may be sent to a printer, and published, even in a newspaper,—how sadly does our band of linguists dwindle away. Of our written performances in foreign languages we are scarcely capable of forming a direct opinion. When we have finished our French letter and corrected it, and if it is of a

ceremonious nature, perhaps transcribed it, we are generally well enough pleased with it ourselves. Our wife or daughter, who aided in its concoction, can see nothing wrong with it. We feel sure that it is far beyond the criticism of the rest of our countrymen in the hotel, so there is no use taking them into our confidence; and if we shew it to a Frenchman, he is too polite to correct one blunder in ten that he sees in it. But wait till the answer arrives,—which, with vanity and rashness equal to our own, our French friend has probably written in English. And what English! There we see our own face as it were in a French mirror, and the spectacle is anything but engaging. But Frenchmen, you will 'allege, are the worst linguists in the world; and you are probably right. The fact, however, is not very reassuring, when we consider that we ourselves unquestionably come next to them. The Germans are as far superior to us both, as they themselves are inferior to the Russians. Take a specimen of German-English, then, and see how it looks. It is certainly better than Franco-English, and we may safely conclude that it is better than Anglo-French or Anglo-German; but unless it proceeded from such altogether exceptional personages as Baron Bunsen or Dr Schmitz, it is seldom correct, and never idiomatic. Now, if such be the state of matters with foreigners, and such the probable result of our own attempts at French, which we have all of us been taught as schoolboys, we cannot hope that it is better with those other tongues which we have mostly picked up when other cares, and interests, and studies were pressing upon us. We can probably read them, and if we have resided in the countries in which they are spoken we can speak them too, in such a way as to be both useful and agreeable; but we cannot write them, and ought never to attempt it, except as an exercise, or in cases of necessity. If we have not resided in the countries, even this amount of knowledge is rarely attained; and of those who toil over German and Italian grammars and dictionaries, not one in ten reaches the point at which he can take as much out of a book in the original as a very indifferent translation would have given him in half the time. Of the nine men who are even less successful, we may say without hesitation, that "*le jeu ne vaut pas la chandelle*." Now, is this sort of thing to go on for ever? Are we to learn more and more languages less and less perfectly, as civilisation progresses, and national literatures spring up or are revised? Language has no meaning except as a vehicle of thought. Its value is greater or less, both absolutely and relatively, to those who use it,

in proportion to the extent to which it conveys thought more or less clearly and fully. But matters have already come to the pass, that half the languages that we learn convey the thoughts of others to us but very imperfectly, and as means of conveying our thoughts to others are wholly useless. Would it not be better that we should limit their number, and endeavour to master them more thoroughly? *Entia non sunt multiplicanda prater necessitatem*, said the schoolmen. Ought we not to adapt the maxim; and adopt as the rule of our linguistic endeavours, that the number of our tongues should not exceed the necessities of our position? But what is necessity? It is here, as in another subject of which we hear too much at present. Belligerent rights are limited by the necessities of war, but who shall define the necessities of war? In neither case, of course, can an exhaustive solution be arrived at, because definite rules are dependent on circumstances, and circumstances vary. But generally we know what war demands, and generally we can tell what amount of lingual intercourse is requisite for human well-being and progress.

First, there is our mother-tongue, the medium through which we express our affections, our sentiments, and our aspirations,—the language which God has provided for our enjoyment and our use, and which for God's glory we are bound to cultivate with our best endeavours. To our mother tongue our oratorical, and above all our poetical, efforts must absolutely be confined. There can be no true oratory or poetry unless the *thought*, which is its essence, be transmitted untinged by the medium of its transmission; and this is possible only where the medium is so habitual that its use by the orator or the poet is wholly unconscious. All Latin and Greek verses, though they should embody, as they commonly do, not only the stalest platitudes, but the most incontrovertible commonplaces, are, as verses, nonsense-verses.

Second, the living tongue of at least one neighbouring people is requisite in order to bring us to close quarters with those whose upbringing, and consequent points of view, are different from our own. One language thoroughly acquired, by means of residence and familiar personal intercourse, will serve this purpose better than any conceivable number learned imperfectly by means of dictionaries and grammars. The choice of the language will of course be determined by local and personal circumstances. Should the accidents of residence add a second living language, no harm will be done to minds of ordinary capaciousness, and the field of observation will be widened. But in as much as the mental capacity of most men is far

from being unlimited, the addition of a third, we should say, would generally be detrimental to mental elasticity and vigour.

Third, Beyond the boundaries of the very limited number of foreign states, whose languages we are in a condition to acquire thoroughly, some medium of communication with the rest of the world is requisite. Now this medium may be either direct or indirect. If it be indirect, it will consist of translations, very much as these are now prepared, largely in this country, and still more largely and generally far better in France. If it be direct, it will consist of a common language, consciously chosen, universally adopted, and steadily adhered to for international purposes. Now Latin, in a very great measure, was such a medium for ages after it ceased to be a living language, strictly so called; it continued to be so down to the period of the Reformation; and it was nearly a century longer before it ceased to perform this function, even with reference to Protestant countries. Would not its revival even now be the readiest way of supplying the desideratum of an international tongue?

Seriously to propose the restoration of Latin to the position of an ordinary medium of communication,—a means of exchanging the thoughts and sentiments of living men, notwithstanding the observations with which we have been endeavouring to lead up to it,—will, we are well aware, seem extravagant to most of the readers even of a magazine devoted to scholastic interests. Nor do we urge it to any greater extent than as the solution which, for the present, seems to us the most feasible, of what we have shewn to be a real difficulty.

In its favour, in this point of view, the following considerations may be urged:—

1st, It is preferable to any modern tongue for many reasons, of which the most prominent is, that its adoption could not be regarded as an acknowledgment of the supremacy of any particular nation.

2d, As it is universally taught in every country in western Europe, its introduction would not require any new scholastic machinery. Every educated man learns it now, and we should all know it better, even as a passport to classical antiquity, if it were turned to the practical uses of everyday life.

3d, By confining ourselves to it as the only language beyond the mother-tongue, which we were bound to write and speak with accuracy, we should very soon come to write and speak it better than most of us write and speak the modern languages.

4th, Those who were foreigners to each other would, at any rate, be all on a footing of equality

in its use. It would not be written or spoken with classical elegance, of course, by almost any one; but a very serviceable sort of *lingua franca*, would spring up, which would be mastered everywhere with the same facility. The inhabitants of the smaller states, Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Dutchmen, &c., would be probably the greatest gainers by the change.

5th, Putting aside the refinement of classical diction as not of possible or at least of probable general attainment, Latin as it was written by the churchmen of the middle ages, and by lawyers in Holland, down to a very recent period, I believe still, is a remarkably clear, precise, and definite language, eminently suited for business purposes. New forms of expression, and even words, would fall to be invented; but if we make up our minds to the fact that languages exist for men, and not men for languages, this would in reality be no very serious objection. Such men as Grotius and Rynkershoek found no difficulty in adapting the Latinity of the civilians to the newly discovered science of international law. Pedants of course would be offended, but if the affairs of the world were carried on with greater facility, their complaints would go unheeded, and they would find consolation in the wider field that would be afforded for the display of their accomplishments. The impulse which would be given to the manufacture of grammars, dictionaries, and hand-books of conversation, would afford an inexhaustible mine of profit to schoolmasters and booksellers for many a day.

6th, If taught conversationally in all public schools, *as it ought always to have been*, Latin might be thoroughly acquired for business purposes in the time which, by the present method, is spent in communicating mere smatterings of it to our boys; and the time that would be saved from the study of other languages, would be of infinite importance for the acquisition of those new branches of science and learning which are pressing themselves on us on every side.

7th, The greatest difficulty would arise in the first instance. What would be done with the present generation whose Latin was not learned after this fashion? Even here the difficulty seems greater, at first sight, than it would possibly prove in practice. The change of course would be gradual, and need not be made wholly by one generation. Then, even with the Latin which most men know, a foundation is laid, which would make the farther acquisition comparatively easy. A single long vacation spent with exercises and phrase-books, would place most of us in as good a position with reference to it as we gene-

rally are when we get up our Spanish or Italian for a projected continental expedition; and continual contact afterwards would arrest that progress of forgetting which undoes so much of our present toil.

8th, In many departments of science and learning, an actual gain would be effected for the cause of truth by reverting to the use of Latin. If Hegel's works had been written in Latin, they never would have cost half the trouble which their construction has occasioned, even in Germany; and what truth they contain would have been far more readily and widely disseminated.

We have said nothing of the position which, if this arrangement were adopted, would be assigned to the other great language of antiquity. That Greek, at no very distant time, may be restored to the position of one of the living languages of

Europe, is an occurrence which the tendency of events seems to render not impossible. As such it might or might not be acquired, according to individual convenience or taste. As a branch of a learned education, it never can be dispensed with; but in this point of view, its acquisition, in place of being retarded, would be facilitated by any arrangement which should render international communication possible, with a more limited study of modern tongues. The habit of dealing with the one ancient language, as living, would very speedily influence our modes of studying the other. If every educated man knew Latin next to his mother-tongue, that a much larger number of men than at present would become familiar with Greek, may be safely predicted.

J. L.

THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION.



HERE is no subject merely human that can engage the attention of man of greater importance than that of education. Second only to Christianity, which is of divine origin, and which concerns his eternal interests, is education, which has to do with fitting and preparing him for the right performance of the various duties that are to devolve upon him in after-life.* But while we may thus in theory separate religion and education, the things of this world and those of that which is to come, it cannot be too much borne in mind that there can be no such separation in practice, without infinite injury to both. On the contrary, the more close and intimate the connection maintained between the two, the greater their mutual benefit. While religion imparts to us a knowledge of things not seen, and reveals to us higher principles and rules of conduct than reason can teach, education shews us how the principles of religion are to be put into daily practice, how the Christian is to attain the holy life. The proper object of religion is action. It is in the active duties of life that it attains its highest development, and becomes of the greatest value.† But any particular course of action is at

* "I call a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously, all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."—*Milton*.

† "Never, in the highest and holiest sense, can he become a religious man, until he has acquired those habits of daily self-denial, of resistance to temptation, of kindness, gentleness, humility, sympathy, active benevolence, which are to be acquired only in daily contact with mankind."—*Dr Caird's Religion in Common Life*.

first irksome and difficult, and comes to be natural only after a long course of practice. There are certain circumstances in nature, or in the individual, that favour the acquisition of any course of action, others that oppose it. These it is the business of education to find out; and to avail itself to the utmost of those circumstances that render the acquisition of right habits most easy and perfect. It shews the force of habit, the value of early impressions, the power of example, and in general, the character and influence of those laws of nature and of the individual, upon the due observance of which human progress and happiness so materially depend.*

Education is thus the necessary handmaid to religion, from which, on the other hand, it receives its proper direction, its highest motives. The one is the necessary complement of the other. The two must go together, and work together, each in its proper sphere, and with its proper means, striving after the perfection of the race, and to bring about that reign of righteousness which reason, no less than revelation, teaches us to look for in the latter days upon the earth.

In order to a correct understanding of the nature and importance of education, it is necessary to lose sight of individuals, and to look at men in masses and for periods of time. It is only in this way that we can see the full force and influence of the various elements that are at work in building up and fashioning the individual cha-

* "Derrière l'éducation est caché le mystère du perfectionnement et du bonheur de l'humanité."—*Kant*.

racter. Whatever has tended to improve or ameliorate the condition of man, whatever has exerted an abiding influence upon a people or race, belongs to education; and it is by marking the gradual advance of civilisation from the earliest dawn of history to the present time, and noting the various circumstances that may have tended to further or retard its progress, that we get a true view of the character of education.

This progress has been by no means straight and uninterrupted, but crooked and unequal, sometimes in one direction and sometimes in another. Occasionally it has appeared to be at a stand still, or even to be going backwards, but this only for a brief space, in order, as it were, to snatch a short breathing-time, so that it might be able with greater vigour to pursue its onward course. Sometimes one nation, sometimes another, has for a time occupied the van, and anon had to give place to others. One after another has for a time taken up the beacon-light, running onward with it for a space, and then when it began to falter or fail, succeeded by another of stronger and fresher energies. Many nations that once occupied the foremost rank in civilisation have passed away, or live only in name; and these are not confined to one district, or even to one continent. At one time they are of Asia, at another of Africa, now of Europe, and anon it may be of America or Australia. It seems as if in each succeeding nation that arose, and under each clime, there were certain elements that favoured for a time the growth of civilisation, at a particular stage of its progress, and that when these were exhausted, the people that furnished them perished.

There are three classes of influences which, variously combined, have fashioned the world, and led on the march of progress to our own time. These are, physical, social, and individual. The physical circumstances of a people, or the nature of the country which they inhabit, its climate, soil, productions, mountains, rivers, coasts, &c., all tend to form their character, to direct their energies, to give colour to their thoughts. There are some who are inclined to attribute all, or nearly all, the diversities of character existing among individuals to these physical agents. But, varied and powerful as they are, they are not all-powerful, nor do we believe them to be the most powerful influences in education; for we find nations living under the same physical circumstances, yet in very different states of civilisation. "The mild Ionic sky certainly contributed much to the charm of the Homeric poems, yet this alone can produce no Homers. Nor in fact does it con-

tinue to produce them; under Turkish government, no bards have arisen" (*Hegel*).

Another class of influences, more important, we believe, than the former, is that which arises from society; the manners and customs of a people, their modes of thought and ways of acting, the laws by which they are governed, all act powerfully in the formation of character. A State characterised by enlightened measures of policy, by liberal institutions, and by its endeavours to foster talent and industry, is of incalculable service in the cause of education.

A third and most important means of education, less known or understood than the others, but not less real or manifest, is that within the individual himself. It is the action of each individual nature upon the circumstances which surround him, making them his own, and using them as materials to build up and fashion his inner nature. "Just as the same air and moisture will produce in one case the materials of a lily, and in another of a rose, according to the structure of the organism through which they pass, so will the same external impressions effloresce into wholly different mental experiences, according to the intellectual nature of the being who receives them" (*Morell's Psychology*). The differences existing among individuals in this respect are very marked. No amount of identity of external circumstances, be they physical or social, will make two individuals exactly alike. There is this individuality, this *tertium quid* which distinguishes each person from every one else, even as physically each individual has a personality of his own which distinguishes him from others, so that two persons are never to be found exactly alike in every respect.

These three classes of influences, variously combined, have from the earliest times been acting upon humanity, and have brought it to its present state. They comprise so many different elements, and act and react upon each other in so many different ways, that it is impossible accurately to distinguish their separate influences, or to say what part each plays in carrying on the great work. It is, however, by keeping them severally in view, observing their operations, and following out their principles, that civilisation will be advanced, and human happiness increased.

When we come from masses to individuals, we find these three classes of influences at work, though in relatively different positions. The influence of external nature always abiding, always the same, acts surely but gradually, and hence its effects are not so great nor so manifest on individuals, or in a short period, as on races, extending over a length of time. On the other

hand, again, the social influences—those of man upon his fellow-men—are more manifest than in the mass. Still more is this true of the last of these classes of influences. To the individual, the great moving and assimilating power is self. It is this that moulds and fashions the character, availing itself of the various circumstances by which it is surrounded. It is in the individual that it is most marked; in the multitude, its distinctive character is in a great measure lost.

There are none of these circumstances that are not capable of being altered or modified by man, and thus becoming in his hands instruments of education, means for the improvement of humanity. By travel, for instance, he may bring himself under different classes of physical circumstances; by trade and commerce he obtains the productions of other countries to minister to his necessities, or to supply materials for his industry. The influences of society are especially under human control, and with the progress of civilisation must become ever more and more valuable and efficient as a means of education. At first sight the individual nature or character may seem to be least of all under the power of control, least subject to the influence of any known laws. This, however, we are convinced is not the case, but that on the contrary we have here the most valuable and important means of all in the education of the race. Apart from the physical and social influences which act upon and mould this inward nature, there can be no doubt that essentially it partakes in a great measure of the nature of the parents. However it is to be accounted for, or however striking anomalies may sometimes appear, there can be no doubt of the general fact, that intellectual and moral, no less than physical, qualities have a tendency to become hereditary.* It is on this principle that, when we find a person pre-eminently distinguished for moral or intellectual qualities, we commonly look for the like characteristics in one or other of his parents, more particularly the mother. In this way we believe that each generation is not only educated and trained by that which preceded it, but that it has incorporated in its nature the training and culture of that and many preceding

generations, and that each individual character is in a measure the result of the training of a long line of ancestors. Were it not so, the fact of a man being of noble descent or gentle blood would mean nothing; it can only mean that that descent or blood is expected to carry along with it some degree of the culture, the talents, the worth that distinguished the founders of the family. Here then we have a most valuable provision by Providence for the gradual improvement of the race, a conservative power by which the acquirements of a generation or individual are not lost but preserved and transmitted to posterity. As in the physical world there is no force ever lost, so in the moral there is no virtue, no virtuous deed that ever dies. It goes on progressing, and extending, and multiplying to the end of time. In this way the man who has fought the good fight against his evil affections, and kept the faith with his better nature, has the satisfaction of knowing that he has not laboured for himself alone, but that his posterity in future ages will reap of the fruit of his labours.* It is thus that God has promised to be unto the third or fourth generation, with those that keep his commandments. As in the material world it is possible for us, from an examination of the earth's crust, to form an idea of the various changes which it has undergone, may it not be possible for higher intelligences to read the world of mind, and declare, of any individual, the various influences that have been at work upon it, and the various conditions it has passed through to reach its present state.

It is thus that national character is built up, that nations attain greatness. Only after a long period of growth, a long course of training continued through generations, has any nation become truly great. Hence the difficulty, almost the impossibility, of grafting a certain state of civilisation upon a people not ripe or prepared for it. The laws and institutions that are suited to one people may be unsuitable for another which is not in the same state of advancement, which has not undergone the same process of training.† The people and their institutions must grow and be built up together, the one gradually suiting and adapting itself to the other.‡ In some cases

* "The mental like the bodily constitution of every individual depends in some inexplicable way on the conjoint qualities of his parents." "The instances which may be cited of dull children being the offspring of parents both of whom have been remarkable for quickness of intellect, present no greater difficulties than analogous instances with regard to corporeal qualities. It is as easily conceivable that two peculiar constitutions, which separately occasioned, or were attended by intellectual quickness, may produce the reverse in the offspring, as that a fair child may be born of parents both of whom have dark complexions."—*Essays on the Formation of Opinions.*—(Samuel Bailey.)

* "In these (moral evils) as well as in the former (physical evils), the sins of the fathers are visited upon the children. Vicious propensities are transmitted in the blood as well as bodily disorders. And how many are shut up in vice, or find the escape from it far more difficult than it is to others, through penury, or ignorance, or the force of example or habit."—*Thompson's Christian Theism.*

† "Despotism may often further the advance of a nation, and a good dictatorship may be a very excellent thing."—*Dr Arnold.*

‡ "History gives us no instance of an extemporaneous

the growth may have been so gradual as to have been unobserved, but it must not the less have been present. Wherever we find any great discovery, any sudden and marked progress, if we examine minutely we shall find that there was a gradual preparation for it going on. There is ever the apt time as well as the proper agent, and hence it is that we not unfrequently find the same discovery, made by different persons about the same time, quite unknown to each other. Not more surely does the farmer prepare the ground for his seed, than is humanity prepared for the seeds of progress that are from time to time cast upon it.

But while each individual is being thus constantly acted upon by these various classes of influences, he is also in like manner constantly acting upon them. By his labour and industry he is changing the face of nature, and the physical circumstances by which he is surrounded; by his influence and example he is impressing society around him, and he is also transmitting his character and habits to posterity. The race is made up of an aggregate of individuals, the existence and labours of every one of which is necessary to effect the total result. It gives a peculiar sacredness to education, to work, to individual existence, to think that every one, however poor or insignificant, is "a component part of a system of mutual dependencies; and by his several acts he either increases or diminishes the sum of human good now and for ever." "No man's acts die utterly, and though his body may resolve into dust and air, his good or his bad deeds will still be bringing forth fruit after their kind, and influencing generations of men for all time to come" (*Smiles' Self Help*).

We believe that if people would accustom themselves to entertain such broad and extended views of education, much more unanimity and harmony would prevail on the subject. They would thus see the relative importance of the different parts of this grand whole, and see in their true light and proper place those minor points, which by reason of their blindness and ignorance they at present look upon as of the highest moment. They would see that it is only a comparatively small part of one's education that is received at school; that there are other and more important

teachers than the schoolmaster. It would not then seem of the same overwhelming importance as at present, whether certain sectarian doctrines were taught or catechisms learned at school. They would see that religious teaching did not consist merely in reading portions of Scripture or repeating catechisms; and the principal religious test they would insist upon applying to the schoolmaster would be, Was he thoroughly capable for his work? Was he a man of earnestness and honesty of purpose; fully alive to the importance and responsibility of his office; calculated to inspire confidence, to awaken enthusiasm, and to win the esteem of his pupils?

The earliest and most important teacher of the child is the parent, to whom in an especial manner the framing of his morals and character belongs; the parent, and the clergyman or a substitute, are the proper teachers of religion; while the real business of the schoolmaster is intellectual training. In place of this, however, the parent in too many instances neglects his duty, and when his son becomes unruly and vicious, sends him to be reclaimed by the schoolmaster; the clergyman and the church neglect the religious education of their young, and then insist upon having their special sectarian doctrines taught at school.* Need we wonder that none of these duties are performed in an efficient or proper manner, and that the poor overburdened schoolmaster finds himself totally unable to do justice to the mass of work thus remorselessly cast upon his shoulders.

In most cases, when we wish a subject to be well taught, we acknowledge the advantage of having a special teacher for it. In our higher educational institutions, we have different teachers for languages, for mathematics, for natural science, and so forth; and never, we believe, till we have religious instruction communicated by a special teacher, under the direction and control of the church, will that subject be taught with that care and efficiency which its importance demands.†

Not only does Christianity suffer from the present unfortunate state of things, but secular edu-

* "We grow Protestants, and we grow Catholics," "and de-grade seminaries for the universal mind of the country into rival garrisons for a faction"—*Wyse on Education Reform*

† "For religious education we require more than the Bible, more than the Prayer-Book; we require the living soul of the instructor sanctified by grace to come into spiritual contact with the soul of the person taught"—*Dr Hook*. He proposes two classes of schools, (1.) "The schools of religious doctrine, precept, and training," "to be supported by the voluntary contributions of religious congregations;" and (2.) "Literary or secular schools which are to be taught by masters and apprentices holding diplomas from the Government, awarded after examination by a board of examiners appointed by authority."—*Letter to the Lord Bishop of St David's*.

civilisation." "A high civilisation must be the product of ages, and the habitude of centuries; it must have been so abraded in the passage of a multitude of years, as that the ribs of the mould wherein it was cast were long ago rubbed off from its surface, and are now quite worn away. The civilisation of a people must come to it like its language from a remote and almost forgotten age; or say—like its alluvial soil—the deposit of uncounted eras"—*Isaac Taylor*

cation also. There are multitudes on our streets perishing for want of the very elements of knowledge, and who are prevented from receiving it by those very sectarian struggles which we deplore. "Many estimable men," says Isaac Taylor, "undoubtedly benevolent but narrow in understanding, and rigid in temper, will rather see millions die in starvation, than help in distributing among

them loaves that are not baked in their oven, and are not crossed with their mark!" "To all men of ordinary intelligence, and of unsectarian feeling, the obstructions thrown in the way of popular education are causes at once of grief, of irritation, of amazement, and of humiliation also" (*Ultimate Civilisation*).

ON MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION.*

IT is not too much to say then, that while the average scholar in a boarding-school does not obtain such knowledge of Latin as introduces him to an acquaintance with Roman literature; he does not even obtain by way of compensation much of the indirect advantages which Latin is designed to give—the mental discipline, the fine taste, the *copia verborum*, the exactness of expression, and the knowledge of the principles of language. The truth is, that to secure any of these results, it is not only necessary to teach on better methods, but also to carry the course of instruction much farther than the ordinary middle-class scholar ever goes. There is no more significant problem in education than to determine when and how the teaching of a given subject begins to bear intellectual fruit. There are great differences here. If you teach a boy to add up five figures, and never carry him a step farther in arithmetic, you do him a service. The power to add up numbers is a new and useful faculty. It is good *per se*. So every physical and historical fact has its own intrinsic value as part of the furniture of the mind, and may become practically available in the commerce or the controversies of life. And even in mathematics, where the continuity of the study is of so much importance, the early exercises have a sort of completeness of their own. The boy who has only reached the fifth proposition of Euclid, and who can follow its reasoning rigorously and exactly, is *pro tanto* the better even though he never learns the sixth. But, as commonly taught, the early lessons in Latin have no value whatever, except as an introduction to the lessons which are to follow. There is a point in the history of all studies, at which the rudiments, the memory-work, the hard rules, and the dry unmeaning formulæ become so assimilated, that they pass

into the form of culture, and become permanent though unnoticed elements in the strength or refinement of the mind. This point is reached sooner in some studies than in others. But it takes a long time to reach it in the study of the classics. If we will only go far enough, all the gerund-grinding begins to tell, and we find that, though slowly, it has opened to us a new world of thought. But if we do not go far enough, our work comes literally to nothing. It brings us by a weary road, up to the threshold of a fair building, into which we never enter. And all the toil is lost. True, there has been an effort of memory and of application; but the effort has been spent in learning something which is in itself utterly useless, and which unless it is incorporated by subsequent study with the organic life of the mind, is soon cast out as a dead thing, and disappears for ever. The same discipline for the memory and for the faculty of attention may as easily be obtained in learning something which has a real value of its own. And life is not long enough to spend any of it in learning, merely for the sake of learning, any one thing which is useful to us neither as a means or as an end.

And it surely need not be insisted on here, that relatively to the range of modern knowledge and thought, the classics occupy a far less important position than they once held; and that however old habits and traditions may blind us to the fact, the results of classical study are daily less and less influential on all our minds. We cannot deny that for all practical purposes Latin has ceased to be the common language of educated Europe. Bacon, and Hobbes, and Newton, thought it necessary to put forth the most precious results of their thinking in Latin; but John Stuart Mill, and Whewell, and Herschel, do not choose the same medium now. No modern controversies are likely to be carried on in the language employed by Cardinal Pole, by Erasmus, by More, or by Milton and Salmasius. When the grammar

* From an admirable paper by J. G. Fitch, Esq., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, read at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, held at York, September 1864. London: Edward Stanford. 1865.

school system was shaping itself, and before it had become formalised and petrified into its present shape, Latin was to all intents and purposes a living language, for it served as a medium of communication to all the thoughtful men in Europe; and supplied to them, not only materials for thinking, but forms of thought. Now, except in that wonderful dialect which the learned societies employ in conveying to each other the characteristics of a new variety of spider or of fern, Latin has ceased altogether to fulfil this function. The occasions on which it is necessary to write two lines of Latin are extremely rare in the life of any educated man.

And if it is true that Latin can no longer claim that direct and obvious utility which belonged to it, when the grammar school system was fashioned, it is no less true that it has ceased to exercise the indirect influence over our literature which it once possessed. We have scholars still, scholarly poets, scholarly essayists, scholarly novelists. In their writings we may trace not a few allusions to classical lore, sometimes occurring naturally and spontaneously, more frequently as the result of some special line of reading or preparation. But we have no writers whose minds are saturated, so to speak, with the spirit of the old world, or who draw from it any large share of their inspiration. Let a modern reader turn to Bacon's "Essays," or Ascham's "Schoolmaster," or Sir Philip Sydney's "Defence of Poesie," or Milton's "Comus," or Jeremy Taylor's "Holy Living and Dying," or Fuller's "Worthies," and he will see what it was to study the classics, when such a study was a reality, and furnished the chief food of a man's intellectual life. Let him then turn to the most accomplished of contemporary writers, to those in whose works the influence of classical study is most apparent, to Milman and Macaulay and Grote, to Bulwer and Thackeray, to Matthew Arnold, to Browning and Tennyson, and he will see what it is for such study to be an accomplishment and a luxury; adorning a literature, but not penetrating into its life.

These considerations are not urged as reasons for displacing the classics from their traditional supremacy in the curriculum of the higher education of the country. But they have a serious bearing on what has been termed "secondary" instruction, i.e., the instruction of those persons who live by labour in trades, or in the lower professions, and who constitute what is commonly understood by the vague term "middle class." I do not say that classical scholarship would not be very valuable to this class, but simply that it is unattainable, and that if it is unattainable we

ought not to waste the time and strength of boys in fruitless efforts to attain it.

I have no doubt that the poor and abortive teaching of what is called the "classics," comes, in far too many cases, to absolutely nothing; that it rather deadens than awakens thought, that it stimulates no literary appetite, and that it is not even directly helpful in enabling the pupil to write his own language with fluency and grace. And it will always be so, unless we learn to fashion our schemes of instruction with a clear view of their probable duration, and of their ultimate purpose. If a youth is to stay at a public school till nineteen, and spend four years more at Oxford, there is good reason why he should begin with Latin; for he will probably carry the study far enough to obtain from it much of the intellectual fruit which the study of the ancient languages can give, however clumsy and formal may be his method of acquiring them. For him it is comparatively unnecessary to make a separate study of English grammar, for he will learn it in a reflex and indirect, but still most effective way, through Latin and Greek. But if a youth is to leave school at fourteen, the best linguistic discipline which is possible for him is to be had in the study of his own language. By diligent analysis, grammatical and logical, by exercises in paraphrase and composition, and by the careful and critical study of one book by some great English writer, he will learn more of the true significance of words, and of the structure and right use of language, than he could learn in any other way.* No one who is not aware of the great improvement of modern school-books in this department, and the special efforts which have been recently made by scholars to elucidate the English language, can form an adequate estimate of the valuable discipline which the grammar of our own language is capable of furnishing.

Here then is a grave problem which we may hope the inquiries of the new commission will help to solve: "What is the best and most fruitful form of discipline for scholars who are not likely to enter on a university course, or to prolong their school life beyond the age of fifteen? What curriculum can be devised, which even if abruptly terminated at that age, shall still be good and valuable as far as it goes, and serve as the means

* I must be understood to speak here of average teachers only, and of the methods best suited for general adoption. A really accomplished man with skill in teaching, and love for his work, may use what method he likes, and will find it efficacious. Such a man would probably prefer to teach English, even to beginners, through the medium of Latin. But in his hands, Sanscrit would serve the purpose quite as well.

to a real and not an impracticable end?" The legitimate ends of school instruction are not hard to define. They include training for the eye and hand, as reading, writing, drawing; training for the reasoning faculty, as arithmetic and other science; training in the right use of speech, as grammar and composition; and knowledge of facts and things. Without desiring that the commissioners should use their authority to formalise the work of instruction, or interfere needlessly with the liberty of teachers and the wishes of parents, we may yet hope that they will not lose the opportunity of laying down some general principles respecting the true range of secondary instruction, and of shewing that the theory of a "grammar school" or "classical academy" is inconsistent with those principles.

Such suggestion and guidance will, however, form but a small part of the commissioner's work. It is much easier to say what ought to be taught than to make adequate provision for teaching it; and the question will still remain—How can a good supply of well qualified teachers be secured? It is not difficult to form some estimate as to the class of persons into whose hands the education of a large portion of the middle classes has fallen. It is open to us all to read the advertisements which crowd the columns of the *Times* at Christmas and at Midsummer. We all know what sort of promises are held out in these advertisements—the excellent provision, the salubrious air, the accomplished masters, the scheme of study which includes all learning, human and divine, to say nothing of the maternal anxiety of the schoolmaster's wife, ever ready to be extended to the fortunate child whose parent or guardian can afford to pay from 18 to 30 guineas a year for these privileges. Perhaps some of us know too in what way these promises are often fulfilled—how often the schoolmaster is a mere trader, a lodging-house-keeper, who is fitted neither by nature or education for the serious business which he has undertaken. Now, in most civilised nations, this danger is averted by means of a law which forbids any person to set up as a teacher who has not given some evidence of his qualifications for the office. We in this country have a Medical Registration Act which makes it penal for any man to practise medicine or surgery who does not possess some certificate of competency. An analogous measure—a Scholastic Registration Act—has been proposed; which in like manner shall prevent the intrusion of the empiric or the quack into the teacher's profession. But there are difficulties here such as are not at first apparent. When Parliament undertook to deal with the medical

profession, and said to its members, "You must register your qualifications, and prove that they have been duly tested," there was no doubt at all as to what was meant by medical qualification. There were the Colleges of Physicians and of Surgeons, the Society of Apothecaries, the great medical schools, and the Universities, all of which held a recognised position, and were qualified either to give professional instruction or to guarantee that it had been attained. But in the present state of our educational machinery it would be premature and cruel to enact a similar law for schoolmasters and mistresses. For at present, if an Englishman desires honestly to devote himself to the business of school-keeping, there are no means accessible to him for obtaining instruction in the art or science of his profession. There is no university or college in England—not even the College of Preceptors—which gives a course of systematic instruction adapted to his special needs. Except, therefore, in the rare cases in which the teacher of a school possesses a university degree, the public have no security that he is fitted for his work, even in the matter of general acquirement: and as to his practical ability as a teacher, and knowledge of the principles of his profession, there is no institution in England which can either give him the needful training, or attest the fact that he possesses it.

It has been suggested that the College of Preceptors is well adapted to discharge this function. I wish to speak with all respect of this institution, which is doing useful work, and is likely, under its present management, to exercise increasing influence. But a society of gentlemen incorporated for the purpose of mutual certification, and for the defence of the professional interests of a class, must not be surprised if public confidence comes to them but slowly; and before it is expedient to give any higher legal value to the certificates conferred by this institution, it will be necessary to inquire what is the precise kind of qualification which those certificates represent, and how far the privilege of membership, which, to judge from the frequent appearance in advertisements of the letters M.C.P., seems to be very widely enjoyed by private schoolmasters, has been obtained either by attending lectures or by passing examinations. I cannot doubt that the College of Preceptors is fully entitled to recognition as one of the licensing bodies, in the event of the enactment of a law for scholastic registration; but it has at present established no claim for a monopoly of this privilege. And even if the privilege were granted, the value of the college diplomas in the market would depend entirely on the manner in

which they were obtained, and on the degree of scholarship or of professional skill, which those who conferred them had actually put to the proof.

I believe that we have ready to our hand other machinery, which needs only a little extension and adaptation, to serve our purpose well. The training colleges for elementary teachers are the only institutions in this country in which systematic instruction is given in what the Germans call "*pädagogik*," or the science of education. They have been remarkably successful. The teachers sent out from them have been taught what to teach, and how to teach, and they have revolutionised the primary instruction of the country. Their staff of officers consists of men who have made the principles and methods of teaching their special study. They are annually visited and examined, and a detailed report of their condition is submitted to Parliament. Yet they are poor, and are sustained with difficulty. I believe that the managers of these institutions are beginning to fear that they shall not be able long to keep up so able and efficient a staff as heretofore, considering the recent regulations which limit the work to be done, and the means of paying for it. Now why should not these institutions be at once strengthened and further utilised? I may not here go into the details of the plan, which has long been in my mind, but I may mention in outline one or two of its leading features. They are these:—

I. A good middle-class school might be established in connection with every training college. The present staff of officers would be able, if not to give all the instruction, at least to direct and superintend it, and they are in many respects peculiarly fitted to do the work well. Such a school would, of course, need no government grants. The fees arising from it would add to the resources of the training colleges, and enable them to retain their best men. A school of this kind should be a model school for secondary instruction, and might fulfil, for students of another class, the same purposes which are now fulfilled so well by the elementary practising schools already attached to the training colleges.

II. The next step would be the opening of the doors of the training colleges to others than the present class of elementary teachers. Under certain restrictions, any persons desiring to become qualified as teachers might be admitted to the courses of lectures on teaching, or on other subjects taught in the college, might observe the methods pursued in the model school, and receive systematic discipline in actual teaching under supervision. This class of students would generally

be non-resident; they would pay reasonable fees according to the number of classes they attended, and to the length of their training, and no government grant, in any form, would be claimable by the college authorities in their behalf.

III. All students of this class, after receiving from the College a certificate of diligent attendance, might be eligible, with the other students, at the annual examination for certificates of merit. The Committee of Council would conduct this examination, and would award the professional diploma, and to this extent, and this extent only, would it be necessary to impose new labour or expense upon the State.

It is manifest that we waste a good deal of power in this country, by so completely separating the apparatus for elementary teaching, from that employed in secondary or higher instruction. In France, in Germany, and in Italy, all the parts of the educational system are interwoven, and strengthen one another. The normal schools are available for teachers of all kinds, and are connected with the universities, and under the supervision of their authorities.

It seems to me that the expediency of such a plan is a question of pressing importance just now with us, and one to which a Royal Commission might address itself with great advantage. To give the training colleges new work to do, and new resources for doing it, would enable them to do their present work still better; while to offer to the secondary schoolmaster advantages from which he is debarred, but which the teachers of primary schools can command, would be to confer upon him a great boon—a boon which can only be estimated by those who will compare the modern teacher of the village school with his predecessor of thirty years ago. I am sure that the man who possessed such a certificate would have a great advantage in the market over other competitors, if he desired to set up a middle-class school. Moreover, it must be remembered that without some such wide and general provision as this, a scholastic register act would be a nullity. You have no right to insist on the possession of qualifications, unless you can shew where those qualifications are to be gained, nor unless you are able to prescribe, with some approach to definiteness, what the qualifications are, and how they are to be measured.

Some have thought that the difficulty to which I have referred might be met in another way. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, it is urged, might do for the schoolmaster what they have done with so much advantage for the pupils of middle-class schools. They might institute

local examinations for teachers as well as pupils, and award certificates, which, though inferior in value to degrees in arts, would yet attest a man's competency to keep a school. There is something plausible in this proposal; but it must be remembered that though the functionaries whom the Universities would appoint are excellently qualified to test scholastic attainments, they are not in any way qualified to test the special knowledge of a schoolmaster as such. There is no reason to suppose that either the science of education or the practical art of school management has ever engaged the attention of the university authorities, or that their mathematical and literary examiners are better qualified to give diplomas of teaching ability, than of medical or legal qualification.

Another topic of serious inquiry is suggested by the prevalence of the modern system of examinations. It is obvious that schools of the better class have been very largely influenced by the recent action of the Universities, and by the competitive examinations for admission into various departments of the Civil Service; and it will be very interesting to inquire what has been the extent and value of the influence thus exerted. The greatest effect is that produced by the Local Examinations of the older Universities. Besides these, the Matriculation Examination of the University of London will be found to have told with considerable force on the education given in the higher class of model schools. For the more ambitious schoolmasters seem to regard this examination as conferring a sort of minor degree, and they encourage their best pupils, even though they are not intending to pursue an academical course, to present themselves for matriculation. This is a purpose which can hardly have been contemplated by the Senate, who, of course, regard matriculation relatively to the work of the University as a *terminus à quo* and not as a *terminus ad quem*. But it happens that the examination is exceedingly well adapted to test the soundness of that general knowledge which a well-instructed youth of sixteen ought to possess; and success in this examination is much coveted by teachers for their scholars, as a distinction somewhat higher than the Oxford A.A., or the corresponding Senior Certificate at Cambridge. There can be little doubt that the stimulus offered by these and other examinations has been extensively felt, that the examinations have encouraged a wider and more accurate scholarship, and that the examination-papers have done much to shape the curriculum, and give definiteness to the teaching in many schools. All this we may hope to find fairly recognised. But I think many of us will be thankful to the Com-

missioners if they will ascertain for us at what price we have bought these advantages, whether the distinctions won by the four or five per cent. of the scholars who have gone up to these examinations, have been gained at the expense of the ninety-five per cent. who have *not* entered the competition; how far, in fact, the general efficiency of the schools, as a whole, has been affected by the concentration of the efforts and ambition of the master upon his more promising scholars.

The truth is, that if you want to test the worth of a system of education, you must not merely examine its picked scholars, but you should inspect the schools from which they come. Mr Matthew Arnold, in his lucid and forcible way, has shewn the advantages of such a plan, difficult as it would be to carry it out. But this question of the opening of the middle-class schools to periodical inspection by qualified and responsible men will force itself on the attention of the commissioners, and will no doubt receive the consideration it deserves.

To recapitulate, then: here are some of the questions which lie before us, and which await an answer. "What is the condition of our middle-class schools, both for boys and girls? Can it be improved? And if so, how? Shall it be by establishing new schools for counties or large districts, and so driving the inferior class of private adventurers out of the field? If so, how should these establishments be organised, whence are the funds to come, and under what guidance or control should they be placed? And how can a good supply of well-qualified teachers be maintained? Should it be by making it penal to set up a school, or serve as a schoolmaster, without qualifications; and if so, what should be the standard of qualification? Is there any chance that training colleges for middle-class schoolmasters could be established, or would succeed if established? If not, would it be possible, as an experiment, to expand and utilise the existing training colleges? And as to the subject-matter of the teaching in the majority of academics, seminaries, and 'educational homes'—Is it what it ought to be? Cannot a better system be devised? Are we prepared to look in the face the traditional superstition about the classics, and to see what actually comes of it in the schools which do not even profess to train for the Universities? Finally, what are the surest and wisest ways of testing the work of schools, and keeping up their vital force from year to year? Is it by examination of the picked scholars, or of the whole schools, or of both together? And if so, who ought to be the examiners, and by whom should they be appointed? Will the increased

action of the Universities in this department excite less jealousy than the action of the central government, and, if so, will it serve the purpose better? And more than all, how can legislative and centralised action in any form be most wisely reconciled with that spirit of independence, that faith in free-trade, and that habitual sensitiveness on the point of Government interference between parent, and child, and teacher, which are among the characteristic instincts of Englishmen, and which a wise statesman would not destroy, even if he could?"

Such are some of the problems which await

solution at the hands of Her Majesty's Commissioners. Their task is weighty and serious, and in discharging it well they will confer an enormous benefit on the whole community. This Association took a conspicuous and active part in urging the Government to establish such a commission. It seems to me, therefore, that it is specially incumbent upon its members to think over the whole subject, and to form some opinions on it, in order that if the occasion arises, they may lend to the inquiries of the commission all the aid which it may be in their power to give.

THE BANQUET.

(CONTINUATION OF THE STORY OF PERSEUS AND ANDROMEDA.)



WHEN to three Powers he raises altars three
Of natural turf; to Hermès on the left;
Athênê on the right; the central one
To Jove; and to Athênê slays a cow;
A calf to the wing'd Messenger; a bull
To the great Father, king of Gods and men:
Then straightway claims his bride, Andromeda,
Of high achievement the undower'd reward.
Before them Hymen and Boy-Cupid wave
The bridal torch; and clouds of incense rise
Fragrant; and garlands from the roof hang down;
And sounds of joy and merriment are heard,
The pipe, the viol, and the lute, with voice
Of singing-women and of singing-men.
The gilded halls thro' all their length are seen,
And thro' the folding-doors, wide-open, pour
The nobles to the banquet of their king.
But when the feast was over, and deep draughts
Of mellow wine had set their spirits free,
The stranger of his neighbour-guest inquired
The customs of a land to him unknown.
Lyncides made him courteous reply;
Then added; "Tell us, valiant sir, in turn,
"What deed of prowess or of cunning won
"Yon shield-device, the face with snaky hair."
Then told the Agénorid, how at the foot
Of snowy Atlas lies a lonely spot,
By mountain-barrier from the world shut out;
How in tho pass, that leadeth thereunto,
The children of old Phorcus of the sea,
Twin-sisters, dwell, twin-sharers of one eye;
How as the eye from one to other pass'd,
Himself had stolen it, and by pathless ways
Devious, and horrent hills of crackling pine,
Had journey'd till he reach'd the Gorgons' home;

How by the way and over all the land
 He had seen strewn the shapes of beasts and men,
 At sight of the Medûsa turn'd to stone;
 How he had gazed on the Medûsa's form
 Reflected in the mirror of his shield;
 How, as she lay with all her snakes asleep,
 He smote the head off, and how brethren twain
 Had sprung to life from the Medûsa's blood,
 Pégasus and his brother, Golden-sword.
 Then, unadorn'd with traveller's lies, he told
 The story of his perilous wanderings;
 What lands he had look'd down upon; what seas;
 And what the stars his flapping wings had grazed.
 Here suddenly his tale stopp'd short. Then one,
 An Æthiop noble, of the stranger ask'd;
 Why to Medûsa, of the sisters three
 Alone, the snakes were in her locks entwined?
 Perseus replied; "Thy question, noble Sir,
 "Deserveth answer. She, of whom we speak,
 "Was beautiful in form exceedingly,
 "Of many a jealous wooer the fond hope:
 "Her crown of beauty was her golden hair:
 "So have I heard from those that said, they saw.
 "The Sea-King in Athênâ's shrine, 'tis said,
 "Laid rude and violent hands upon the girl:
 "With gaze averted, the dread child of Jove
 "Behind her Ægis veil'd her maiden eyes;
 "But, to avenge the sacrilege, she changed
 "To filthy snakes Medûsa's golden hair."



THE CLAIMS OF SCIENCE AS A BRANCH OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.



OR a few years past the Department of Science and Art has been making an effort to introduce science-teaching into our schools and evening classes.

During the same period the Commissioners' Report on our great public schools has appeared, urging the necessity of combining science with classics in those time-honoured institutions. Rugby has not waited for Parliamentary enactments, but has at once modified its curriculum to embrace the recommendations of the Commissioners. Yet public opinion has been in such a disturbed state on the subject of education generally, especially since the new code earthquake, that we cannot hope for an early settlement of the question, How far shall science form part of our common school work? The Government departments themselves seem to steer without compass or chart. Downing Street has reduced our school routine to the three rudiments, as all the State

ought to pay for; Kensington introduces science, a new and higher training than our school children formerly had. Pulling thus in different boats, the speed is not so good as it would be pulling together, yet probably fast enough to suit the public mind. The Department of Science has been fickle in its code, revising, renewing, altering altogether, with the most skilful frequency; important changes being made and remade, published and republished, at intervals of a month. Sometimes a bold venture, which, before being tested, has alarmed the official mind, then a weak retraction. Timidity, distrust, irresolution, vacillation, have characterised the work of the Department both in Science and Art. Nor is this said in reproach or blame. The Department but reflects the spirit of public alarm at the extent to which Government aid began to supersede self-help. The Department therefore has to feel its way, and to retrace its steps when obstruction is met with—careful only

that each year shall shew some progress. It as carefully notifies its aim to be only temporary and partial aid, subject to withdrawal whenever Parliament decides that its function of foster-parent to science-teaching has reached its limits. It will be a cause for congratulation if this comes about, not from an educational panic, but from public opinion being trained to see its importance, and therefore willing to make it self-supporting. The sooner imperial aid ceases, under these conditions, the happier for the whole community.

If, then, science should be taught in our schools, we must be prepared to answer, "Why?" and then to answer, "What science?" Science has various claims upon us. The mental discipline implied in science culture, is inestimable; the knowledge gained is an addition to our happiness; and the aptitude of applying our knowledge to the pursuits of life increases our material prosperity. Are these unimportant advantages to the working classes? If important, are they equally well gained by teaching the three rudiments? We know the reverse to be the case. Our working men are not scientific, they are lamentably ignorant even of the three rudiments. Let them, however, have had the mental discipline involved in instruction in elementary science, and it would have led them to reading from the desire for knowledge. For what is this discipline? Science itself is the knowledge of the relation between cause and effect. We discover this relation by observation, investigation, inference, till we arrive at *law*. The infant indicates this course as true to nature, for he observes the candle, he puts his fingers in the flame, and he infers that it would be better for him not to do so again. We find the child at birth conscious only of pleasure and pain, and a true system of training would be so to rear it that its life should afford the greatest amount of happiness with the least admixture of pain. This implies such a wise development of mind and body that the good should be the only true pleasure, and evil should correspond to pain. We can, without difficulty, imagine a mind so well trained as readily to distinguish between good and evil, in their widest sense, and so habituated to act upon principle that to do wilful wrong would be almost impossible, upon whom evil would find no soil to germinate. One trained, for example, for simplicity of argument, to a single virtue such as industry, would find it actually painful to be unemployed. The discipline which such minds have undergone is really scientific. It is the development of the power of rapidly discerning cause and effect, and being guided by the decision they arrive at. Natural science pre-eminently de-

velopes this power. Let us take the very familiar example of a tooth, and draw the inferences from it. It possesses fangs, and is sharp pointed. It is a double tooth, a small one. The fangs lead us to infer a socket for them and a jaw, the jaw a skull and skeleton, and these a vertebral column, a nervous cord and brain. From the sharp point we infer that the animal does not grind its food, for which a flat rough surface is necessary, but tears it, and therefore feeds on flesh. A flesh-tearer necessarily has feet to correspond, it will therefore be armed with claws; and as the tooth is very sharp, we infer that the animal feeds on living prey, is wholly carnivorous, and that its claws are proportionately sharp. Being a flesh-feeder, we know much of its digestive organs, which are short compared with herbivorous animals. It is probably, therefore, the tooth of some small carnivorous quadruped—most likely the tooth of the domestic cat; and if we have extracted the tooth beforehand from poor Tom, for the sake of our inferences, we can speak with still greater certainty upon this point. Again, the microscopic structure of a section of bone reveals to us long canals surrounded by concentric rings of *lacunae*, and this structure varies so in different animals, that the microscopist can readily tell the animal from its microscopic structure. The power of inference based upon previous knowledge was exemplified by Owen in the case of the *Dinornis*, in a manner that made him a demi-god for the time. From the structure of a single bone, he determined it first to be that of a bird; and then built up the typical bird, a fossil giant, rivalling Sinbad's roc, his inferences being verified after a few months by the discovery of complete fossil remains. Such a fact as this, had Owen done no more, would have proved a mind of a high order, yet an order reached by education in science. Who can deny the power and importance of the mental training indicated in these examples? In the schoolroom, our object lessons would exemplify such training, given by a teacher who understood his art, while the same lessons in the infant school should be an invaluable preliminary to science-teaching. All the good to be got from object teaching has not been realised in our schools yet. With them, as with rudimentary subjects, teachers too often have thought their office merely to cram down knowledge, neglectful entirely of the discipline indicated here. Yet, intelligently pursued, these lessons would get children over the "wearisome bitterness of their learning," changing it indeed for an ever-increasing eagerness for knowledge which would count nothing a difficulty that helped to feed an inquiring mind.

In itself the pursuit of science is wholly good. The investigation into nature's laws is simply the search after truth. The student does not aim at confuting cherished doctrines; he aims at understanding truths established, and at discovering new truths. He pursues his steps till he arrives at a law, or till he sees clearly the separation between the knowable and the unknowable. Unlike the ancient philosophers, he neither theorises nor dogmatises, nor wastes his life and energies upon the last, but reverently acknowledges what is beyond man, and confines his researches to that which will bring beneficial results. It may be his duty to keep his mind in abeyance for years, or to leave the discovery of a law to which he has pointed his finger, as a legacy to another age. A truly scientific mind cannot be obstinate in opinion, and even a small amount of scientific training saves us from the errors of superstition. The habit of seeking truth is contrary to an ignorant belief in the unknowable. The man of science lives in an illumined sphere greatly enlarged beyond the sphere of the ignorant; he lives as it were in a larger world, and therefore may be said to live more. The dark limits of his world, and his conception of the infinite beyond, are also both extended, and he reveres the unknown. The bounds of the ignorant man's little world are close upon him; the darkness beyond is a subject of blind credulity, blended with terror.

What is seen and what is not seen are continually opposed to each other. The apparent is false, while the real is hidden. This is true in every department of science. The uneducated mind lays hold of the apparent, satisfied at once, while the disciplined mind seeks deeper for principles, inferring nothing without sufficient grounds. Thus the child imagines trees and posts to flit by him, and he himself to be still, while riding in a railway carriage, will believe himself riding backwards in a tunnel, and will cry out that London Bridge is moving down upon him as the steamboat starts from the pier. All the world believed once that the sun moved round the earth. Countrymen will tell you how fossils are made by the trickling of the water through the earth. Our language is full of like instances. We speak of inspiration of the breath as though our breathing in were done with an effort, the same as we talk of a sucking pump; and how many are there who upon leaving school can explain the vital action of the diaphragm and the mechanism of breathing? Science rectifies this. The habit of investigation prevents us accepting an assertion as a fact. If we hear that the thunder has turned the beer, we are not satisfied with the simple evidence

that the beer is sour. If we have our pocket picked, or window broken, and we are told it is good for trade, we doubt the truth of the assertion, and would choose our own way rather to benefit trade. Thus, too, our little birds that devour the voracious grub, and the pretty spotted lady-bird that preys upon the plant louse, are waged war against by the farmer, who sees only the biggest thing, and for want of a little science, slaughters the friends who would save his crops of corn and beans. Prizes have been given in our country districts for the largest trophy of prowess over our sparrows, and in France the fields have been so cleared of the feathered tribes that, as we hear, importations are taking place, of English birds, in order to arrest the progress of a chronic blight. This takes place in a day when we could not be persuaded that Rebecca the Jewess changed herself into a swan, and flew round the castle three times, even though the shaft shot at her was produced in evidence? It seems more like the tone of mind of our less enlightened forefathers, who believed in the delusions of table-turning, spirit-rapping, and that Mr Home and the Brothers Davenport were the mediums of all sorts of spiritual pranks.

The mental discipline upon which we lay so much stress is a law of nature for the development of mind. As the mind strengthens and grows, so it would be able to take more abundant exercise. Too often, however, it is dwarfed and cramped, and confined by injudicious management. Parents themselves being ignorant, are pestered rather than delighted with the questioning propensities of their children. We met with an instance in an East London 'bus only the other day, when a child, with juvenile inquisitiveness about every strange thing that passed, exclaimed, "Father, father, what is that?" "Mind your own business, boy," was the paternal reply. The boy soon forgot the rebuff, and plied his parent again with, "Look there, father, what is that?" "Mind your own business, I tell you," was all the information vouchsafed. This little passage was repeated numberless times in the course of a short ride, and afforded an excellent exemplification of non-scientific training.

Greater facilities exist for the attainment of science than ever hitherto. In connection with the Royal School of Mines, and the Geological Museum, Londoners are specially blessed with facilities, and the local classes under the Department of Science and Art will, doubtless, in a few years, if uninterfered with over much, create a taste for science throughout the country.

Every one accustomed to meet with young men

knows how they pine for mental power. Innumerable classes exist for them without satisfying their undefined craving after knowledge. They long for the right to hold an opinion of their own, and wonder if the time will ever come when they may do so. The local science classes will do much for these young inquirers. The great advantage they offer is definiteness of object and of time. The teachers are paid only for success, and have a pecuniary interest in getting their pupils forward. The pupils know the exact length of their course, and work for the distinctions offered at the end. Every addition to such student's knowledge removes from him so much *mauvaise honte*, gives him self-reliance, and helps him to take his proper place amongst intelligent men.

What science, then, should we recommend to them? Natural science? mathematical? moral? As far as the mental culture goes, it may be left to the taste of the student what he should study. If he aims at joining in and enjoying intellectual conversation, he will find that nothing comes amiss, but that the more he knows, the more his opportunities of enjoyment increase. A taste for science also is a growing taste. While we may learn much about geology without a knowledge of allied sciences, the thorough geologist must be competent in natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, zoology, and physical geography. The sciences are interlinked and expansive, so that the physiologist or botanist is not merely such, but is able to take a sensible view of most things.

If, however, we must name the foremost sciences demanding the study of the young, we cannot hesitate to mention the laws of health and the laws of wealth, physical and social economy. The first teaches him to know himself, the second to know others. The first tells him *why* he should keep his body in temperance, soberness and chastity; the second *why* he should labour truly to get his own living. We see around us the whole world engaged in one way or another in the great work of the production of the necessities and comforts of life, to which we give the name of wealth. The stock of wealth depends upon the industry and skill of the producers; and its increase in the future depends upon the increase of our producing powers, that is, of industry, skill, intelligence, and other high qualities. We also observe how this great work of production is divided amongst the labourers, and necessitates interchange, and how proportionate to a high or low possession of the industrial virtues. So we find in individuals and in communities abundance or

deficiency of wealth. The dependence of one upon another leads us to consider how much we have to trust one another, and the importance of integrity in all our dealings. Our obligations to our forefathers, and our desire for the prosperity of our children, lead us to the thought of parental duties. And thus, in a manner only hinted at here, yet a pure scientific induction, we reach to the great moral laws upon which is founded the superstructure of society. In our country, where health and social affairs are the great topics of conversation, no one needs fear an inability to take his proper place who has made himself master of the laws of both.

The scientific and the uninformed man together are illustrative of the old tale of "Eyes and No Eyes." The first sees *more* in everything he glances at, and everything affords him a larger measure of happiness, while the uninformed man lets things pass often without seeing them at all. In the course of a life-time, what an amount of happiness—of life itself—is thus lost! To the man of science truly there are "sermons in stones," and every leaf and flower discourses wisdom.

Imagine a visit to such a place as the zoological gardens by a naturalist and a frivolous man, and measure the impression upon each. Accompanying them to the gardens at Kew, and is it not with pity akin to pain, we see the botanical glories there waste their sweetness upon one who might have been taught to understand them? But where does not the scientific man take the vantage? Inland or at the sea-shore, at home or abroad, he has in him a source of happiness, and a means of giving happiness. A sea anemone or sea cucumber has associated around it not only a personal history, but all the curious difficulties meeting us in low organisms, of drawing the line between animals and plants.

Nothing, perhaps, distinguishes the scientific mind from the uninformed, even from the passing intelligent, than the readiness to explain problems, difficult from their very ease. Whales keep under water longer than the lungs they possess of a mammal can account for. How is it? The zoologist knows at once of the strangely twisted arteries, which supply a reservoir of oxygenated blood ready for service in the circulation. What is the difference between horns and antlers, and what analogy have either with leaves? Why does a dead oyster gape? What are markings in a mussel shell caused by? What are the differences between white and red coral? What is the luminosity of the sea urchin? What is the natural history of sponge, the leech, hydra,

aphis or plant-louse? What is meant by "species?" What is meant by the term "alteration of generations?" These are all common things, so common, that on their recital most people would fancy they knew them. Yet how many have heard, indeed talked of and criticised a book like Darwin, without understanding it, without perhaps reading it? How many have seen their geraniums and roses destroyed by the aphis, who, if they knew its wonderful career, from the egg in the spring and budding from its parents' sides, without sex, during summer, the

last buds, as cold approaches in autumn, forming true sexes, and laying eggs for the next year's progeny, but would have felt a zoological compensation for their horticultural loss?

In conclusion, the taste for science, especially natural science, is a healthy sign; it is spreading, we believe. Mineral specimens, wardian cases, and the aquarium, are growing common. We should foster these tendencies, as a combination of physical and intellectual pursuits, and realising pre-eminently the trite desire,—*mens sana in corpore sano*.

THE CONSONANTS.*

PART FIRST.



WHEN I use the word *consonant* in this paper, I mean a *sound*, not the character or characters used in any language to represent that sound to the eye. I have then nothing to do with the history of the English alphabet, or any other alphabet. Nor do I mean to treat of the

powers of different letters in any language. I deal with sounds alone, not with symbols, except in so far as I must use them to represent the sounds spoken of. Nor do I require to define a consonant. That would require me perhaps to define vowels too. I begin by calling attention to the following table:—

TABLE OF CONSONANTS.							VOWELS.
ORDERS.	NASALS.	MUTES.		ASPIRATES.		SEMI-VOWELS.	
		Sharp.	Flat.	Sharp.	Flat.		
Labials . .	m	p	b	f	v	w ^s	oo as in pool. ō as in pole. ā as in pall. ä as in palm. ā as in pale. œ as in peel.
Linguals . .	n	t	d	th ³ s sh	th ⁴ z zh ⁵	l, r	
Gutturals . .	ng	k	g ^a	ch ⁶ h	gh ⁷	y ⁹	

1. *ng* as in *sing*.

2. *g* as in *go*.

3. *th* as in *thin*.

4. *th* as in *this*.

5. *zh* as *z* in *azure* = *j* in French.

The letters of the English alphabet not found here are—*c* = *k* or *s*; *j* = *dzh* in combination; *q* = *k*; *x* = *ks* or *gz* in combination.

The soft *g* = *j* = *dzh* in combination. In English, *ch* = *tsh* in combination. Thus, *g* soft or *j*, is the flat combination corresponding to the sharp *ch* in *church*.

ORDERS.—The grand division is into labials, or lip letters; linguals, or tongue letters; and gutturals, or throat letters, according to the organs

6. *ch* as in *loch*, in Scotch or German.

7. *gh* as in Gaelic, or like *g* between vowels in German.

8. *w* as in *we* or *now*.

9. *y* as in *yarn*.

with which they are pronounced. The linguals are also called palatals and dentals. They are formed by the tongue, teeth, and palate, in the middle part of the mouth, and have been placed in the middle of the above table.

The accuracy of this grand triple division may be verified by slowly and carefully pronouncing *me, pe, be, fe, ve, we, ne, te, &c.* I beg the reader, here and in what follows, to make the vocal experiment for himself, as no amount of description on paper can make up for the want of *word* illustration.

* A paper read by J. Ross, Esq., Rector of the High School, Arbroath, at the Arbroath Local Association of Schoolmasters.

NASALS.—The division made by the vertical columns, though not of such importance as the other, is a very interesting one. The nasals are so called because sounded through the nose. This may be proved by the simple experiment of holding the nose and attempting to pronounce them. You will find that while you can, under these circumstances, pronounce all the other consonants freely, you cannot pronounce *m*, *n*, and *ng*. When the nasal passage is free, you can continue to hum an *m*, for example, as long as your breath serves you; but hold your nose and the humming sound is at once cut short. This test distinguishes between *m*, *n*, and *ng* on the one hand, and *l* and

r on the other. Perform the experiment by keeping the nose stopped and attempting to pronounce *am*, *an*, *ang*, *al*, *ar*, continuing to hum the consonant.

I think, then, that it is erroneous to class *m*, *n*, *l*, and *r* together under the name of liquids. I have no objection to your calling *l* and *r* liquids, if you think the lingual semi-vowels deserving of a name of their own. But all their properties connect them more closely with *w* and *y* than with *m* or *ng*. Like *w* and *y*, they can be sounded freely either before or after any mute or aspirate. Try the following:—

pla, bla, fla, vla, tla, dla, &c. . . .
pra, bra, fra, vra, tra, dra, &c. . . .
pwa, bwa, fwa, vwa, twa, dwa, &c. . . .
pya, bya, fya, vya, tya, dya, &c. . . .

alp, alb, alf, alv, alt, ald, &c.
arp, arb, arf, arv, art, ard, &c.
awp, awb, awf, awv, awt, awd, &c.
ayp, ayb, ayf, ayv, ayt, ayd, &c.

Sounding the *aw* like *ow* in *now*, and the *ay* like the name sound of *i*, or like *igh* in *sigh*.

All this can be pronounced easily enough. Now, try the same experiment with *m* and *n*. You will find that the nasals can scarcely be pronounced after any consonant. Such combinations are difficult to every one, and to some quite unpronounceable. Try again, *pma*, *kna*, &c. This difficulty gives rise to some curiosities in language. Thus the English, *know* (Latin, *no-sco*, originally *gno-sco*) is the same as the German *kennen*, Scotch *ken*. In English and Latin, the difficulty is got over by not sounding the *k* or *g*, and in German and Scotch, by the insertion of a vowel. At the beginning of a word or syllable, such combinations (*kin*, *gn*, *pn*, &c.), however, though harsh, are not unpronounceable. They are common enough in Greek and German. The Scotch pronounce both consonants in *knee*, and similar words: but with a great tendency, in many parts of the country at least, to insert a short vowel sound between, and pronounce *kinee*. In Latin and Greek, a short vowel is inserted, and the *k* being flattened into *g* hard, the words become *genu*, *gonat*. By the way, does this latter form point to a radical connection with *knot*?

But at the end of a word or syllable these combinations cannot be pronounced at all. The following may be taken as an instance of the effects of this impossibility. In Latin, the accusative of masculines and feminines is indicated by *m* added to the root. But where, as in the third declension, the root ends with a consonant, the short vowel *e* is inserted to make the *m* pronounceable. In Greek, the accusative ends in *n* (*v*), representing the Latin *m*, as is seen in the first and second declensions, and in words of the third whose stem

ends in a vowel. When the stem ends in a consonant, as the Greeks did not choose to insert a vowel like the Latins, the *n* could not be pronounced, and the short sound of *a* was the result of the attempt. Hence *a* is the common termination of the accusative in the third declension, because the stem generally ends in a consonant. The accusative in *a* of words ending in *sv*; and *ns* is no exception. In the former *v* stands for a consonant, the old Digamma *F*, which has fallen out altogether in the cases where it occurs between vowels, but is retained in the form of *v* in other cases. Similarly an *σ* has fallen out of the declension of adjectives in *ns*. Thus the genitive of *τηρήτης* would be originally *τηρήτηςσος*, then *τηρήτηςος*; and then *τηρήτηςος*; and the accusative *τηρήτησιν*, *τηρήτηςα*, *τηρήτηςα*, *τηρήτηςα*. Many modifications could be given in Greek analogous to this process, and therefore confirmatory of its truth.

To return to the subject. While the semi-vowels can be used either before or after any mute or aspirate in the same syllable, the nasals can be freely used in combination only before consonants of their own orders respectively, i. e. *m* before labials, *n* before linguals, and *ng* before gutturals. I have again to beg the reader here to verify my assertion by trial. No doubt *n* may be found before gutturals, as in *ink*, *link*, *anger*, *younger*, &c., but though the character is *n*, the sound is that *ng*, as in the table above.

Before leaving the nasals, I should say that any vowel, semi-vowel, or flat aspirate, may be nasal, or have a nasal intonation. Instances are the nasal vowels in French, and *mh* in Gaelic, which is nearly equal to *v* with a slight nasal sound. But in all these cases the breath issues principally through the mouth, and only partly through the

nose, while in the case of the nasals *m*, *n*, *ng*, the breath issues wholly through the nose. It is no uncommon thing to find consonants softening down till they lose themselves in vowels, and it is but natural in this case nasal consonants should melt into nasal vowels, as they have actually done in French.

With this statement as to the partial nasal character attachable to all the softer consonants as well as to the vowels, and with the admission that there are varieties to be further noticed of most of the consonants, I think it will be found that the above table comprises all articulate consonantal sounds. For this I might quote Latham as an authority, although his classification is in some respects very different from that exhibited above.

THE MUTES form the next great vertical division. They are so called because, when put after a vowel, but no vowel after them, they entirely shut off the breath, and so long as the vocal organs remain in that position, the person is quite mute. Indeed, these mute consonants are very obscurely heard, unless followed by a vowel sound. The slightest vowel sound following, however short and obscure, is sufficient to make the sound of the mute clear and distinct. For example, if you pronounce *weep* and *week*, continuing in the former case to keep the lips compressed, and in the latter to keep the guttural organs constricted, it is very difficult for a person at some distance to tell the one from the other. Pray, try the experiment. If you open the lips or relax the throat immediately on forming the *p* or *k*, these consonants will be distinct enough, but then you are really ending the word with a short, obscure vowel sound, equivalent to the so-called mute *e* in French. Hence, I imagine, the general rule in French, that if a word ends with a consonant not followed by a vowel, the consonant is not heard; but if a vowel follow, even if a mute *e* be added, the consonant is heard.

THE ASPIRATES are distinguished from the mutes by a continued instead of an abrupt sound. These two classes are distinguished by Latham as *explosive* and *continuous*. While the mutes entirely stop the passage of the breath for the time being, the aspirates do so only partially. Hence the name *aspirate*, if we disregard its history, is quite appropriate. It will be observed, too, that the aspirates are formed with the organs nearly in the same position as the corresponding mutes of the same order, the only difference being that in the case of the aspirates the compression of the organs is not so great as to prevent the breath from being forced through. You will feel this in

pronouncing *tith*, *tis*, *kich* (*ch* guttural of course). In the labials the position is somewhat different, the teeth being brought into requisition in pronouncing the aspirates. Both *f* and *v* can, however, be pronounced with the lips alone, without the teeth. The Germans do not use the teeth quite so much in producing these sounds as the English do. In Gaelic, the aspirate labials are represented by *f*, *ph*, *bh*, and *mh*, and are produced chiefly with the lips. There are also different degrees of hardness given to these sounds; *mh* is often so soft that it is difficult for an English ear to distinguish it from *w*. A Highlander whose English is imperfect, will pronounce *voice* sounding the *v* entirely between the lips, instead of using the upper teeth and under lip, in such a manner that you almost think he is saying *voice*.

The fact is, that the aspirate labials represented in English by *f* and *v* embrace a considerable variety of shades of sound, perceptibly distinct from each other. The same holds true of the aspirate gutturals, in which the English language is entirely deficient. In Scotch, we have only one of them, *ch*, as in *loch*, *fecht*, &c. In German, there are several different shades of these sounds, depending on the sounds with which they come in contact. In Hebrew, we have several characters representing different aspirate gutturals, the true sounds of some of which are no doubt now lost. In the modern languages of the Semitic stock, there are said to be several harsh, deep, guttural sounds. From the absence of these sounds from the English language, we in this country are placed at a disadvantage in studying them. But I have no doubt that if all the varieties of aspirate labials and gutturals found in different languages were collected and filled into their proper places in the above table, it would not then be so unsystematical as it appears to be. English is peculiarly rich in aspirate linguals. To take some of the best known languages to exemplify this: we find that French, German, and Latin want both the sounds of *th*. Latin and Greek seem both to have wanted the sounds of *sh* and *zh*. The Ephraimites were unable to pronounce the *sh* in *Shibboleth*, and it cost them their life. The Black Sea or Euxine is in Greek Εὐξῖνος, a word meaning *hospitable*. But we are told that, like the Cape of Good Hope, it once had a less auspicious name, being called originally Ἀξῖνος, or the *inhospitable*. We know, however, that the Greeks were in the habit of calling places and people by their native names, or as nearly so as they could, and then of absurdly seeking a Greek meaning and derivation for them, as if there were no language in the world but Greek. As Εὐξῖνος is a pure compound Greek

word, it is not very likely to have been the exact native name. Accordingly, it has been supposed that the original name might have been Ashkenaz, and that *sh* being unusual to Greek ears and tongues, they made a pretty close approximation to the real sound in calling it *ἀσσηνός*. Thus it is inferred that Ashkenaz, the son of Gomer, or his descendants, settled on the shores of the Black Sea; and to confirm this hypothesis, we know that the Kimmerians, that is, probably the Gomerians, lived there about.

I think, then, that a careful examination of all languages would shew that there are more than one pair of aspirate labials and of aspirate gutturals, as well as of aspirate linguals. I am will-

ing, however, to admit, that in the order of linguals, these pairs of aspirates differ more widely from each other in the character of the sound than in either of the other orders. This is natural, for the tongue is after all the great organ of speech. The very word *language*, from *lingua*, the tongue, shews that this was well known long ago.

Any one may satisfy himself of the great preponderance of the lingual element in any language, by taking a passage, and counting the labial, lingual, and guttural elements in it. The following are the results I found, from counting the elements in two verses of the New Testament:—

	English.	German.	Greek.	Latin.	French.	Gaelic.	
Labials, . . .	27	24	25	41	24	9	
Linguals, . . .	110	117	84	78	83	58	
Gutturals, . . .	13	29	37	20	6	34	
Total, . . .	150	170	146	139	113	101	
Or per cent—							Average.
Labials, . . .	18	14	17	30	21	9	18
Linguals, . . .	73	69	58	56	74	57	65
Gutturals, . . .	9	17	25	14	5	34	17

Two verses are hardly a broad enough basis for founding a comparison of these languages on, as other two verses might yield a somewhat different result. But they are enough, when taken in six different languages, to shew roughly the relative proportions of the three different orders of consonants. I have included the sound of *w* among the labials, and that of *y* among the gutturals. Some may be inclined to consider these pure vowels, which would make the preponderance of linguals considerably greater.

But though varieties are most conspicuous among the aspirates, they are also to be found among the mutes. There is, for example, a thick pronunciation of *t* and *d*, familiar to us in this county, as that of Aberdeenshire. It is formed by protruding the tongue till it touch the teeth. This is the mute which corresponds exactly in the position of the organs with the aspirate *th*. The pure English *t* and *d* corresponds to *s* and *z*. In none of these four is the tongue so far protruded. In *sh* and *zh* it is drawn still farther back, so that these sounds are naturally placed in the above table next the gutturals. Indeed, it is difficult to make a sharp distinction between lingual and guttural sounds in every case. There is, for example, the liquid sound of *gn* in French, holding an intermediate position between *n* and *ng*. Similarly the liquid *l* should be placed between *l* and *y*, while the thick *n*, and the thick double *l*

of celtic languages, correspond to the thick *t* and *d* already mentioned, and to *th*.

SHARPS AND FLATS.—Both mutes and aspirates are subdivided into sharps and flats, or surds and sonants, as Latham calls them. The difference is more easily heard than described. The flat is pronounced with the very same organs, in the very same position as the corresponding sharp. Take *p* and *b* as an example. There is, however, this difference, that if you attempt to pronounce *p* without opening the lips you make no sound at all, but if you try *b* in the same manner, you hear a slight buzzing sound proceeding from the throat. The same is true of the other mute. Coming now to the aspirates, perform the same experiment with *f* and *v*, or *s* and *z*. You must not prefix or affix any vowel sound. You will find that the sharps are mere whispers, while the flats can be sounded aloud. Hence *sonant* is a very appropriate appellation. The source of the distinction seems to be mainly this, that in the case of the sharps there is no action of the larynx; with the flats and all other letters there is. But that this is not the whole distinction is proved by the fact that the distinction between sharps and flats exists though both be merely whispered.

Sharps can combine only with sharps, and flats with flats. Thus, in the words *knots*, *loaves*, *rods*, *rags*, *loathes*, the final *s* has the sound of *z*, because preceded by flats. In *lips*, *muffs*, *cats*, *truths*,

sticks, it has the pure sound of *s* sharp, because preceded by sharps.

SEMI-VOWELS.—This rule is sufficient to distinguish flat aspirates from semi-vowels, which, like them, are both continuous and sonant. Though a semi-vowel is flat or sonant, it combines well with sharps. Moreover, in all the aspirates, there seems to be a redundancy of breath, as if part of it escaped, even in the flats, without being fully vocalised, giving a sound like that of wind puffing, hissing, or southing among, or against, obstacles. This is wanting in the semi-vowels.

It is necessary, I am afraid, to attempt to demolish the vulgar notion that *w* and *y* are consonants when they begin a word, and vowels everywhere else. Of course, in *Presbytery*, and always when it is unaccompanied by another vowel, and has the sound of *e*, it is a vowel and nothing else. But it does strike one that, if *w* is a consonant in *wine*, it should be so also in *twine* or *swine*. Nor can my ear detect any difference of its sound in *now*. If *y* is a consonant at all, we have the sound of that consonant in *filial* and *onion*, though the character itself is not there. I might cite authorities, but I think it is plain enough to any ear that *w* is very nearly = *oo*, as in *food*, and *y* = *ee*, in *feed*. Thus, *wall* is nearly = *oo-all*, rapidly pronounced, and *yarn* = *ee-arn*. I say *nearly*, for the sounds of *w* and *y* are really more compressed than *oo* and *ee*. In pronouncing *wool* and *year*, this compression of the organs, and the subsequent relaxing of them, in forming the succeeding vowel sounds, are both heard and felt. It is this compression that vindicates for these sounds their semi-consonantal character.

Though this paper is only on the consonants, I must call attention to the outline of the vowel scale attached to the table given above. It is a mere outline, not professing to give nearly all the sounds. For example, the *é*, *fermé*, in French is omitted. It would stand between *ēē* and *ā*. But we may take the vowel sounds heard in the words *fool*, *foal*, *fall*, *far*, *fare*, *fear*, as well marked points in the scale. Now, the first and the last of these are the slenderest, the opening of the mouth being less than in uttering the others.

The *oo* is produced near the lips, which are considerably compressed, while *ee* is produced further back in the mouth, and by a considerable compression of the organs in the same region as that in which hard *g* and other gutturals are formed.

If you pronounce the vowel scale, beginning at the one end, and going to the other, you will perceive that the mouth gradually opens till you come to the middle, and then gradually contracts till you come to the other end.

Proper diphthongs, that is, those in which both vowels are sounded in one syllable, cannot be formed without the aid of a small vowel from one or other end of the scale. And this small vowel has a strong tendency to slide into the still more squeezed sounds of *w* and *y*. Thus, *ā*, *ō*, cannot be made to coalesce in one syllable. You must either make two syllables of it, or it will slide into the sound of *ā*, *ōō*, or *āw*. On the other hand, both *w* and *y* can be pronounced either before or after any of the vowel sounds.

Thus there are four possible series of diphthongs :—

1. Beginning with *w*, as *wo* in *won*.
2. Ending with *w*, as *ow* in *now*.
3. Beginning with *y*, as *yo* in *you*.
4. Ending with *y*, as *oy* in *boy*.

If *ow* and *oy* are diphthongs, so are *wo* and *yo*. If *w* and *y* are consonants in *won* and *you*, so are they in *now* and *boy*.

U in *pure* is = *yōō*. *I* in *mine*, and *y* in *my*, is = *āy*.

The first component of the diphthongs in the French words *lui* and *roi*, is not *w*, but a sound very near it, belonging to the same end of the vowel scale.

If, then, *w* and *y* are merely squeezed vowels, they are at least peculiar among the vowels; and their power is the same, whether standing before or after a vowel. Take this very word *vowel*. It makes very little difference whether it be pronounced *vow-el* or *vō-wel*.

The real connection of these letters with the labial and guttural orders will appear from a consideration of the transmutations to which the consonants are liable.

Correspondence.

THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
SCOTLAND.

SIR,—Since the publication of my address, as President of the Educational Institute of Scotland,

which you, unsolicited, were good enough to insert in your valuable Journal, I have had a number of inquiries from teachers in all parts of the country, apparently anxious to become members of that body

of teachers. It is very important for the profession, and for the success of the institute, that its ranks be largely recruited. Dr Gloag, the Secretary of the Board of Examiners, is the party to whom application should be made, who will gladly, I am sure, supply the desired information to all teachers who communicate with him on the subject.

For the information of the brethren, perhaps you will kindly insert this.—I am, &c.

JAMES PURVES.

THE REVISED CODE.

GLASGOW, 18th January 1865.

SIR,—When the statement was made in Parliament, in June, that the Revised Code was withdrawn from Scotland till July 1865, when the report of the Royal Commission should be made, it was generally believed that the withdrawal was complete. I was therefore surprised to learn some months afterwards that, in the administration of the grants, examinations of schools were conducted as if no such intimation had been made.

You and your readers will doubtless recollect that the reasons insisted on for the withdrawal of the Code were:—1st, That the results of the teacher's labour could not be estimated by the plan proposed; 2d, That the required distinct separation of labouring men's children from all others was repugnant to Scottish habits of thought and their practice; 3d, That the standards were badly arranged, more particularly the 1st and 2d; 4th, That the whole cruel scheme was perfunctorily thrust on Scotland without consideration of its educational wants.

It was for these reasons that, at the request of all of our Scotch members, except one, the intimation of the withdrawal was made unconditionally, so far as I understand; yet, in the face of this, every objectionable point has been insisted on in the examination of schools precisely as if no efforts had been made to avert the operations of the Code, and as if the Royal Commission had made its report. In acting thus, I consider the Privy Council has acted badly. I shall be glad to elicit the opinion of yourself and your readers on the subject.—Yours truly,

SOUTH.

UNIVERSITY DEGREES.

SIR,—I think every one will quite agree with the remarks made by a "Parish Schoolmaster" in December's *Museum*. The ability to string a B.A. or an A.M. after one's name is certainly a great thing; and there is no doubt but that James Jones, Esq. B.A., or M.A., Lond., looks a much greater man in the literary and educational world than does plain Mr James Jones. London University has certainly opened up a way by which teachers may with much hard grinding (and you know how very unsatisfactory is often private study without any guiding heart or hand), and a little trouble and expense, secure for

themselves the magic affix. However, I think my Lords of the Privy Council, be that Mr Robert Lowe or Mr R. R. W. Lingen, have acted most unwisely in the matter of university education for the schoolmaster. It used to be, if I mistake not, that the students of our Normal Seminaries were allowed to take one or two classes at college, if such did not interfere with their other studies. But now, interfere or not interfere, such things must not be. You know, Mr Editor, the nature of the examination now required to be passed before our university courts by all our parish schoolmasters. (You see I am looking at this matter only in so far as it concerns Scotland.) One or two books of Latin, a little Greek, and an acquaintance with the higher branches of mathematics, besides history, geography, &c., this is the very least that must be professed by those who aim at having a salary of £60 or upwards. And how are the students leaving our normal seminaries, who have "got as far as *posse* and *velle*," to be expected to pass this? Is this acquaintance with Latin, Greek, and mathematics to be got up privately while they are students, or are they expected to run through a college curriculum after leaving the seminary? Five years a pupil-teacher, two or three years a normal student, four years at a university, in all, eleven or twelve years' hard study, no bad apprenticeship, certainly, to make a man fit for a situation, where, by means of hard bodily and mental labour, he may earn an annual income of some eighty or one hundred pounds. Had I a voice before the present Educational Commission, as I have not, I would propose, for Scotland at least, that students at our normal seminaries not only be permitted, but encouraged, to take a class or two at college, so far as such would not interfere with their other studies. Of the attention paid to their other studies, surely the Government examinations would be a sufficient test. As matters at present stand, many of our parish schoolmasters have to thank the old dominie under whom they were trained, that his notions of education were not quite so narrow and confined as those of my Lords of Downing Street, but that, at the risk (?) of their failing in the yearly examinations before H. M. Inspector, he gave them such a knowledge of Latin and Greek as afterwards enabled them to pass the University Court. Trusting this subject may be brought before the Commission by some abler head than mine.—I am, &c.,

A COUNTRY SCHOOLMASTER.

P.S.—To get down a Commissioner from the University of London, it is necessary that some £30 be guaranteed, and suitable premises for holding an examination. I think also that the examination has to be conducted in the name of some recognised educational institution. Some two or three years ago an attempt was made to get a Commissioner to Glasgow, under the wing of either the normal seminary or of Hutchison's Institution, but it was not

successful. A note to Dr Carpenter, Burlington House, the worthy registrar of the university, would, I have no doubt, elicit for a "Parish Schoolmaster" all the required information.

ENGLISH AT PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

8 LANCASTER TER., REGENT'S PARK, N.W.,
December 17. 1864.

SIR,—The study of the English language in most of our public schools, and many of our private "academies," is confessedly in an unsatisfactory condition. For proof, I refer to the Royal Commissioners, to H.M. Inspectors of Schools, and to the Civil Service Examiners. The results are shewn in our letter writing, our speeches, our sermons, and even in our conversation; but chiefly in *reading aloud* at scientific meetings, in the service of the church, and in the domestic circle.

Many heads of schools admit this, but are unable or unwilling to apply a remedy. Some plead "want of time," as if the mother-tongue had no right to even an hour a week. Others, with more reason, complain that competent masters are not to be had, the present style of education supplying only classical men, some of whom boast that "they never opened an English Grammar," who have "not the faintest idea how it is possible to teach mere English," and who condemn all attempts at improvement in this direction as encroachments on their peculiar province.

Several of the bishops in their recent charges, the Dean of Canterbury and Dr Goulburn at the Bristol Church Congress, and the Royal Commissioners in their reports on public schools, concur in recommending the systematic study of English composition, public reading, and public speaking, as an essential part of the course in all places of sound education.

In these circumstances, I venture to offer my services to my younger professional brethren. From my

long experience as Head Master of the English Department in the High School of Glasgow (with fully 300 pupils from 10 to 18 years of age), and from my official position in London and at Cambridge, I trust that I may not be considered presumptuous in submitting some practical suggestions to those who, however eminent in other branches, have not made English an especial study.

I intend to give, during 1865, in the principal towns in England, Lectures on Public Reading, with especial reference to schools; and I shall attempt to shew:—

1. That the mere ability to *read* in the ordinary elementary sense is a very different thing from the power of reading *aloud* with proper effect.

2. That the prejudice which many entertain against the cultivation of good reading as tending to theatrical declamation is as groundless as it is ridiculous.

3. That so far from there being any loss of school-time in practising this art, there is positive gain; as the muttering modes of speaking and repeating lessons, so common amongst school-boys, and so trying to the teacher's patience, may be almost entirely eradicated.

4. That till those who are practically engaged in tuition recognise the necessity of duly cultivating this much neglected branch at a time of life when there is the best chance of success, we need not hope for any change in the present mode of reading and speaking in public, so discreditable to the general intelligence of the nation.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,
ALEX. D. D'ORSET.

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.

SIR,—Will some contributor to the *Museum* kindly answer the following:—What is requisite in order to become a "Fellow of the College of Preceptors"?

ESSAY.

Notices of Books.

The College Euclid. Comprising the first six and the Parts of the Eleventh and Twelfth Books read at the Universities, &c. &c. By A. K. ISBISTER, M.A., Head Master of Stationers' School, London. London: Longman, Roberts, & Green.

This edition of Euclid, designed for the higher classes in schools and colleges, is arranged after the same general plan as the "School Euclid," edited by the same author, and which has been intended for junior classes. The principles of arrangement may be briefly stated to be these:—(1.) The references to definitions, axioms, or to previous propositions, are

given immediately after the enunciation, and are also noted down in their proper place in the text. (2.) The parts of the figures which are given in the enunciation are represented by dark lines, and the additions which are made to them for the purpose of demonstration, by broken or dotted lines. (3.) The construction and demonstration are distinguished by separate headings, the different steps of the latter being made apparent by arranging the premises and the conclusion in separate lines. And (4.) The component members of each proposition, as a further means of distinguishing them, are printed in different type.

The plan, founded as it is on these principles, is very ingenious, though not altogether new in some particulars, and is no doubt calculated to simplify the study of geometry to beginners.

At the end there is a collection of notes on the several books in their order. These are stated with great clearness, and touch upon the more interesting and important points connected with the text.

Amongst them are found a classification of the propositions in relation to the subjects of which they treat, and the method of proving the second and fifth books of algebra. The notes are followed by a series of questions and geometrical exercises, which are well arranged in order of difficulty, and present considerable variety.

The work is one which we have confidence in recommending, and which well deserves to take a high place among the different editions of Euclid that have appeared.

Imitative Exercises on Nepos and Caesar. Adapted to the Extracts in "Dr Bryce's Second Latin Book," and illustrating the peculiarities of construction in each chapter. Thomas Nelson & Sons, London, Edinburgh, and New York.

This little work will be found of very great value by those who use "Dr Bryce's Second Latin Book," or who teach Cornelius Nepos and Caesar. Dr Bryce has evidently bestowed great pains on the exercises. In a note at the commencement he says:—

"In framing the following series of exercises, a threefold object has been aimed at:—*First*, to teach Latin composition to the young as they learn to speak their mother-tongue, by imitating the forms and modes of expression which they hear or read from day to day: *secondly*, to impress on the pupil's mind the information conveyed in the 'Notes,' as well as to test his diligence and his knowledge: and, *thirdly*, to make him familiar with the principles of Syntax, as set forth in the 'Synopsis,' by constant reference to them, and by repeated exemplification of the most important rules. Great care has been taken not to introduce matter which might be considered too difficult for lads at the age when this book should be put into their hands; but, at the same time, the sentences have been so contrived as to exercise the thinking powers, and gradually to cultivate an independent judgment. Sentences which might seem too long for a mere exercise book readily find a place in these 'Imitatives,' since they present less serious difficulties when the model is before the pupil's eyes, and when he is further aided by the 'Notes' (p. 165, *seq.*) and the references to the syntax. The intelligent and earnest teacher will easily increase the number of similar exercises to whatever extent he may deem necessary."

A Practical German Grammar. Being the Shortest and Easiest Method of Acquiring a Thorough Knowledge of the German Language. By Dr A.

BASKERVILLE, Principal of the International Educational Establishment, Lindenthal House, near Cologne, author of an English Grammar for the use of the Germans, the Poetry of Germany, &c. 1865. Cologne: M. Du Mont-Schauberg. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.

Dr Baskerville is well known by his elegant translations of German poetry. The present Grammar bears ample proofs that it is the work of an experienced teacher. It proceeds on the principle of giving exercises from the commencement. These exercises are well arranged and graduated. Mr Baskerville also supplies in his Fourth Part reading exercises. The work is disfigured by some inaccuracies in English spelling—a usual feature of the printing of English abroad. Otherwise it is well got up.

The Public Schools' Calendar, 1865. Edited by a Graduate of the University of Oxford. London: Rivingtons, Waterloo Place. 1865.

We greet the appearance of this new candidate for public favour with a hearty welcome. The idea is good, and the editor has displayed unusual care in the preparation of his first volume.

"The work," he says, "is intended to supply periodical information of a kind not generally accessible, and to assist the inquiries of those who desire a fuller knowledge, not only of the regulations and expenses, but of the existing state of our public and other great schools, than may be obtained from sources usually available."

The work is based on the Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners on the nine great Public Schools. Besides accounts of these nine schools, information is given with regard to Christ's Hospital, Birmingham, Bedford, Woolwich, Sandhurst, King's College School, University College School, Royal Naval School, City of London, Liverpool, Cheltenham, Marlborough, Rossall, and Wellington.

Parsing Simplified. An Introduction and Companion to all Grammars, consisting of short and easy rules (with parsing lessons to each), whereby very young students may, in a short time, be gradually led through a knowledge of the several elementary parts of speech to a thorough comprehension of the grammatical construction of the most complex sentences of our ordinary authors, either in prose or poetry. By THOMAS DARNELL. London: Griffith & Farran, Corner of St Paul's Churchyard. 1865.

The feature which deserves special praise in this work is the number and variety of the exercises. Even if a teacher should differ with Mr Darnell in his definitions, he will find the simplicity and aptness of the sentences made or selected for parsing of great use in first lessons on grammar. On the whole, the definitions are good, but some of them are certainly

defective. Thus an adverb is said to be "a word added to a verb to shew *how*, *when*, or *where* a thing is done;" and no instance is given of adverbs joined to adjectives. The work is neatly printed. It may form a useful book in the hands of a teacher who knows how and when to teach grammar.

MAGAZINES.

A Magazine for Young People. Edited by OLD MERRY. London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder. No. 1. January 1865.

This is a remarkably nice magazine for the young of both sexes. All the articles are interesting, and the moral tone is high. The most objectionable article is "Our Bible Class," which abounds in interpretations which one might expect rather in Origen

than in a juvenile magazine. With this one exception, we give the new periodical a most hearty welcome, and wish it very many readers.

The Church Builder continues in its own path with great success.

The Devon County School Register, Nos. VI. and VII., records the events in the history of Devon County School. That school is a success, and will be a success, so long as an enthusiastic patron like the Earl Fortescue takes an interest in it. If the people of this country could but feel the importance of education as it ought to be felt, the right methods of education would soon be found out, and the means for carrying them out would also be forthcoming in abundance.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of the Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES,

25. Only in general outline can the propagation of Christianity be said to find a parallel in the history of the religion of Mahomet. That the comparison is not complete, but partial, simply explains the difference between what is *true* and what is *false*; the *parallel*, therefore, is more wonderful than the *disparity*.

The facts are these:—

1. The Mohammedan religion was spread by force of arms, "its missionaries marched in armies, its only martyrs fell on the field of battle." The widespread success of the system, political and moral, of the impostor is not, therefore, attributable to him; it was a great political necessity.

2. In the march of Islamism towards the west, its tenets were not embraced to any extent by the conquered races. For there was nothing to enlighten or ennoble the mind in a system which has brought ruin and desolation on the "finest part of the old world," and disgraced humanity by its habitual crimes.

3. In other words, the religion of the Koran *only* displaced or destroyed the elements of *idolatry*. This, its special mission, accomplished, it must yield before an advancing civilisation.

4. Finally, from its fusion and confusion of religion and politics, it contains the germs of its own destruction. To this hour an absolute power has triumphed over the passive obedience of the Moslem, and their sanguinary annals record no tale of social progress or of successful resistance of oppression.

"Herein *lay* the strength, herein *lies* also the weakness of Islamism."

QUENTIN.

QUERIES.

30. Analyse or paraphrase the following lines from Tennyson's "Locksley Hall:—

"'Tis the place, and all around it, as of old, the curlews call,
Dreary gleams about the moorland flying on:
Locksley Hall." E. S. L.

31. Analyse or parse fully the italicised words in the following:—

1. *Pray* tell me *something more* of the mysteries of grammar.

2. *Before going home, however*, I went to a workman.

3. *Such men as* encourage evil-doers shall be punished. GAE.

32. Explain the (to me) apparent absurdity in the first two lines of the following verse, which is given for analysis in "Morell's Exercises"—

"On she came, with a cloud of canvas,
Right against the wind that blew,
Until the eye could distinguish
The faces of the crew." OMEGA.

33. Explain analytically the phrase "to be the admiration" in the following sentence:—"His abilities will live to be the admiration of posterity."

OMEGA.

Let PK = a , PN = S , GN = n , BN = x
 then BP $(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$$BN : BP :: PK : PV = \frac{a(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x}$$

$$\therefore BV = (S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{a(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x}$$

and differentiating,

$$\frac{x-n}{(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \frac{ax(x-n)}{x^2(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{a(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{x^2} = 0$$

$$x^2(x-n) + ax(x-n) = a(S^2 + x^2 - 2nx)$$

$$x^2 - nx^2 + anx - aS^2 = 0 \dots (1)$$

assume $y = x - \frac{n}{8}$ and substituting this value of y for x in (1), we have

$$y^2 + \left(an - \frac{n^2}{3}\right)y + an^2 - aS^2 - 2n^2 = 0, \text{ an}$$

equation of the form $y^2 + gy + r = 0$, and soluble by Cardan's Rule.

Note.—When P is in the centre of BV, $S = a$ and the roots of eq. (1) are

$$x = a, \text{ and } \frac{(n^2 - 3a^2 - 2an)^{\frac{1}{2}} + n - a}{2}$$

If A be 90°

$$x = (aS^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

QUERIES.

23. Solution requested by L. T. C. D.—To prove that all triangles of equal area have the sum of the three angles also equal (*without making use of Euclid's 12th Axiom*).

24. Solution requested by X. Y. L.—To construct an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base four times the vertical angle.

25. Proposed by H. Parade.—Three forces, ABC, act upon a point, the angle between A and B = θ , that between B and C = ϕ , shew that the resultants $R = A^2 + B^2 + C^2 + 2AB \cos \theta + 2BC \cos \phi + 2AC \cos (\theta + \phi)$.

26. Proposed by H. Parade.—In the triangle ABV, the base AB is bisected in C, and VD drawn perpendicular to it,—find the locus of V.

Primo, when $AV = BV + CD$

Secundo, when $AV = BV + VD$.

Education at Home.

SCHOLASTIC REGISTRATION.—A public meeting of schoolmasters and others interested in education was held at the rooms of the Society of Arts, John Street, Adelphi, Jan. 5, to consider the best means of bringing the question of scholastic registration before the public and the legislature. There was a good attendance. The objects which are sought to be attained are thus set forth in the circular of the general committee:—

"The general committee which has been formed for the promotion of scholastic registration desires to invite your attention to a movement which has already secured extensive support, and the object of which is to obtain for the public some protection against incompetent educators, and for the profession the position and estimation to which its character and importance entitle it. The report of the Royal Commission on Education, appointed in 1858, shews that an urgent necessity exists for legislative interference, and the suggestion made in that report, 'that no person shall be appointed to the mastership of an endowed school who shall not have either taken an academical degree or obtained a certificate of competency from some authorised body,' is founded on the minute and careful investigations which were instituted by the commissioners. If the principle involved in this proposal is sound, it is not unreasonable to conclude that its more general application

would be productive of still greater advantages. It is the opinion of those who have devoted attention to the subject that a Scholastic Registration Act, analogous in its main provisions to the Medical Registration Act, would be a practical means of accomplishing this object; and the numerous replies to some thousands of letters which have been addressed to all classes of educators indicate that an almost entire unanimity prevails in favour of the proposed measure."

The Rev. Canon Jackson, M.A., rector of Stoke-Newington, occupied the chair.

The Chairman said, before the first resolution was moved, he had been requested to make a few observations on the general question, by way of introducing it to their notice. The great point of discussion and reflection that day was the improvement of the status of the schoolmaster who had not a formal training in one of the universities or one of the training colleges of the country. Those who were conversant with the subject of education would remember there were several classes of schools in England. In the first place, there was the higher class of school, such as Eton, Winchester, Harrow, and King's College, and those of equal reputation. Then there were the old grammar schools throughout the country, a little lower than these. In all those grammar schools there was good security for scientific and classical

instruction, and the position of the principal. All the teachers were to be graduates of Cambridge, Oxford, and in some instances Dublin. Security was given in those instances that the instruction was sound and real. Then, since the important movement of Her Majesty's Privy Council, the elementary teachers of the poor were as carefully selected and prepared, but he was sorry to say they were inadequately remunerated. But between these two classes of schools came the largest schools in the kingdom. He alluded to the classical and commercial schools, which had developed themselves into collegiate institutions, which were kept and superintended by a body of men of whom, as a body, he wished to speak with the greatest respect. He recollected being at one of these schools, and he recollected the careful training of his schoolmaster, who had long gone to his reward, with affection and respect. But there was a considerable number of persons who were engaged in teaching who had managed to fail in every department of industry they undertook before they started as schoolmasters. There were cases on record where men of high intellectual and mathematical attainments had been put to some drudging trade, and had failed; but that was no reason why they should fail to be good teachers; but it was a small body of uneducated men who had crept into the profession that cast a slur on the ordinary classical and commercial schools of the country. There was a want of confidence felt in the present class of schools. Of course, it was difficult to deal with vested interests, but it was another thing to provide for the efficiency of the future. All old schoolmasters who had laid down the ferule would look with pleasure on the battlefield, and would be delighted with anything that would raise their brethren in self-respect amongst themselves and the families for which they laboured.

Dr Adams proposed the first resolution, that in order to enable the public to distinguish qualified from unqualified educators some legislative enactments were desirable. In support of this resolution, the strongest argument was to be adduced from the resolution itself, from the very fact that in the City of London, the centre of civilisation, it was necessary to propose such a resolution as that to prove the necessity for the organisation they were about to inaugurate. The statement in itself implied there was in existence a very considerable number of unqualified educators in the country. It was unhappily too true that in this country no man had ever received honour from his profession as a schoolmaster. Barristers and other members of professions derived all the benefit which could arise from their positions; but schoolmasters were excluded. There was no doubt this arose from the fact that many professed schoolmasters had been charlatans and impostors, and the sins of those peccant members placed them in a position of quarantine.

Dr Hodgson then moved that a system of registration, such as that found to be so beneficial in respect

of medical practitioners, might probably be found adapted, under certain modifications, for the registration of schoolmasters.

Mr Greaves moved that a scholastic registration act promoted the interests of schoolmasters, by giving them a legal and recognised position, and that it would raise the standard of education throughout the country by its operation, by deterring unqualified persons from engaging in the education of the people.

Dr Hodgson then moved that the meeting appoint four delegates to represent the registration movement to the Royal Commission on Middle-class Education, and named the following gentlemen:—The Chairman, Mr Curtis, Dr Jacobs, and Mr B. Rule, secretary of the association.

ROYAL SCHOOL OF NAVAL ARCHITECTURE, SOUTH KENSINGTON.—The collection of naval models to which we referred last month, has been the source not only of utility to the students of the school during the month, but also of great interest to the general public. The great bulk of the collection formed by the admiralty has been removed from its former inaccessible home in Somerset house. The collection was commenced by Sir R. Seppings, Surveyor of the Navy, at the beginning of the present century, and has been continued by his successors to the present time. *Great Harry*, first in order of time, was built in the reign of Henry VII., and bore the flag of Admiral Sir Edward Howard, who wrote to his sovereign Henry VIII., "Sir, your good ship is the flower, I trow, of all ships that ever sailed! Sir, she is the noblest ship of sail is this great ship at this hour that I trow in all Christendom." The *Great Harry* possesses a special historical interest in being the first vessel of the royal navy, properly so called, the crown having been dependent upon the Cinque Ports hitherto, for a supply of vessels for any emergency, and which were resumed by their donors as soon as the service was rendered. The *Great Harry* was accidentally burnt at Woolwich in 1553. Popular pictures have made us familiar with the enormous structures at the head and stem, the forecassle and the poop, intended to harbour and protect large numbers of bowmen and arquebusiers, who played the most important part in naval engagements of those days, which were chiefly carried on hand to hand. Between the building of the *Great Harry* and that of the *Sovereign of the Seas*, famous in relation to the ship money, the collection of which by Charles I. led to such notable results, an interval of nearly 150 years elapses. The ships that resisted the Armada are unrepresented, being hired from private trade, and engaged probably during the remainder of their existence in a traffic hard to be distinguished from piracy, which broke the Spanish power at sea. Among the vessels bearing historic interest are the renowned flagship of Lord Nelson, the *Victory*, at Trafalgar, in 1805, which still, as the flagship of the Commander-in-chief at Portsmouth,

perpetuates that glorious era; and the *Royal George*, launched in 1756, which went down at Spithead with all her crew in 1782. Progress in shipbuilding is proved by these models to have been exceedingly slow. Arbitrary Admiralty rules, having, it would seem, for their object the prohibition of improvement, caused our vessels to be constructed after the monotonous model for something like 200 years. The French, meanwhile, free from prescription, built better and better ships, which served us in the end for models, after we had captured them in war. English war ships built since 1832, under the influence of more enlightened knowledge, will bear comparison with those of any nation.

There is only one model of an ironclad, a reproach to the collection, speedily, we hope, to be removed. Besides the Admiralty models, there are some sent by private persons. In addition to the models, every department of a ship is amply illustrated. Masting, rigging, ropes, chain cables, guns, gun carriages, mortars, steering apparatus, signals, are amongst other things thus exhibited. All the accessories of the armament and fitting out of ships may be studied with advantage in this National Naval Gallery, to which the public have free access. The authorities of the South Kensington Museum remind shipbuilders, engineers, and others, that the loan of models of vessels and engines, with their various details, will still be thankfully received.

PRIZE ESSAY ON EDUCATION.—Fifty guineas will be given for the best essay on the great importance of an improved system of education for the upper and middle classes of the community, with suggestions on the best means of effecting it and securing its continuance. The essays are to be dedicated (by permission) to the Right Honourable the Earl of Clarendon, K.G., G.C.B., President of the Public School Commission, and sent to the umpire, the Rev. Dr Emerton, Hanwell College, Middlesex, on or before the 1st of June, each containing a Latin motto with a sealed letter having the same motto and the name of the writer inscribed, which will not be opened until the adjudication has been made. The adjudicators will be two of the professors of the University of Oxford. "The views of the writer" (the donor of the prize), said Mr Walter, of the *Times*, M.P. for Berks, in his speech at the distribution of the prizes at Oxford, "are so magnificent that I will read them at length:—'The legislature will be enabled to see that their regulations are carried out, and an immense stimulus given to all classes of the community. Boys will be anxious to stand well among their companions. Parents will no longer be willing, by foolish indulgence, to retard the progress of their sons, but will rather urge them forward, that their names be not disgraced. Tutors will be anxious that their pupils should not be below the pupils of their fellow tutor, and the head master of every school will spare no pains to have his pupils hold a more distinguished

place in the class list than the pupils of other schools. The public schools will no longer have to complain of the preparatory schools, the university no longer to complain of the public schools, there will be no longer a difficulty found in getting men to go on with the studies of the university because they have to teach *there* what ought to have been taught in the lower forms at school, there will be no longer professors without classes, the university curriculum may then be made worthy of itself, and her highest honours awarded to those who have been thus carefully and efficiently disciplined and trained, the education of the upper and upper middle classes in England will no longer be a by-word and a reproach, but become a model for imitation, and the admiration of the world.'"

SIR STAFFORD NORTHCOTE ON ART EDUCATION.—At the annual meeting of the Exeter School of Art, recently held, Sir Stafford Northcote delivered himself upon the subject of art education, and at the same time explained the purpose of the Parliamentary Committee on Art of last Session, and defended the action taken thereupon by the Department of Art at South Kensington. He said, the encouragement of art education had accomplished great objects; it had enabled us to ascertain, what was a disputed point, that an Englishman had as good a mental capacity for producing works of art as the native of any other country; that the English people might have their taste cultivated as much as any people could be; and what had been achieved had told most materially for the benefit of the manufactures of the country.

Art education had spread so rapidly, that a very large additional expenditure and minute superintendence were required. All the evils of centralisation were thus beginning to be incurred, and the department had thrown more responsibility upon the local schools, and had withdrawn their grants, not because the system had proved unsuccessful, but because of its great success. The department is issuing a new code, relative to art instruction, in which the local school will be allowed greater freedom of action.

EDUCATION COMMISSION.—The Scottish Education Commission resumed its sittings on the 16th ult., and on that day examined R. R. W. Lingen, Esq., the Secretary of the Committee of Council on Education. The correspondence columns of the newspapers all over the country, shew that the plan adopted for collecting the educational statistics has given rise to much dissatisfaction. The public can scarcely fail to contrast the working of the two Commissions—the Hypothec and the Education—now sitting in Edinburgh; and certainly whether account be taken of the number of *practical* witnesses examined, or of the celerity with which the evidence has been laid before the public, the palm must be given to the Hypothec.

THE ST VIGEANS SCHOOL CASE.—It will be remembered that Mr Naysmith, Parochial Schoolmaster, St Vigeans, Arbroath, was dismissed from his office on the complaint of the heritors that he had appropriated to his own use certain sums of money, part of the proclamation fees, that he had agreed to pay to the Parochial Board. The case was decided in terms of the 14th section of the Parochial and Burgh Schools Act of 1861. Mr Naysmith brought his case by suspension and interdict, and the Lord Ordinary (Jerviswoode) has granted the note of suspension craved, and set aside the sentence. In his interlocutor, his lordship states that the petition and complaint on which the judgment of the sheriff proceeds, is "not relevant as a complaint under the 14th section of the statute, 24th and 25th Victoria; and in particular, that the first and second charges thereof, which were found to have been proved, are not relevant charges under the said statute, in respect that the same contained no sufficient specification of the nature, grounds, and terms of the obligation under which, or of the time or times at which, the pursuer of the present process of reduction was bound to have paid, or to have accounted for to the parties named, or any of them, the sums stated to have been unlawfully appropriated and fraudulently retained and applied by him to his own uses and purposes." In a lengthy Note, the Lord Ordinary states, that although finding in favour of the pursuer, he has been unable to give effect to many of the pleas in his behalf. As, for example, the plea that there were no defenders here at all, the heritors were not parties, and that the sheriff had no jurisdiction, inasmuch as the matters in complaint preceded the date of the act transferring the power from the presbyteries to the sheriff. The same view was taken of the plea that the pursuer had already paid the sums referred to to a person named Kidd, who was at the time inspector of the poor in the parish, on the ground that to go into this plea would be to enter upon the merits of the case, which would be treading on the province of the sheriff. The 14th section of the Act, on which the case was presented and been suspended, enacts, "That it shall be lawful to the heritors and ministers to make a complaint in writing to the sheriff of the county in which the school is situate, charging the schoolmaster with immoral conduct, and specifying in such complaint the particular Acts in respect of which the complaint is made."

THE BURRELTON SCHOOL CASE.—Mr Keillor has carried his case by appeal to the Court of Session. It appears from an Edinburgh newspaper that the school managers of the Burrelton school have applied to the Education Committee of the Free Church for their counsel and assistance in the law-suit in which they are involved, and that the Committee, while declining to do anything themselves, have promised that in the event of the managers applying to the

General Assembly, the Committee will recommend their case to the "serious consideration" of that body. It is very much to be hoped that the General Assembly will not interfere in the matter. When the case was before it some years ago, it was dismissed, on the ground that the Assembly could not interfere, as the matter lay between Mr Keillor and the school managers. To interfere on any side now would be perfectly inconsistent with that decision.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

CAMBRIDGE.—The subjects proposed this year for the exercises for the undermentioned prizes, are—

1. The Chancellor's Gold Medal for an English poem, not exceeding 200 lines: *Florence*.
2. Camden Medal for Latin hexameters: *Roma Subterranea*.
3. Members' Prizes for Latin prose—
 - (1.) For Bachelors: *De Lucretio poeta et philosopho judicium*.
 - (2.) For Undergraduates: *Gualterus Raleigh*.
4. Sir Wm. Brown's Medals—(1.) Greek Lyrica. (2.) Latin Ode. (3.) Greek Epigram. (4.) Latin Epigram.
5. Porson Prize:—
Translate into Greek verse, Shakspeare's *Macbeth*, Act III. Scene 2, "How now, my lord, why do you keep alone?" to the words, "go with me."
6. Burney Prize:—
Essay:—*The Moral Gulf betwixt Man and Brute*.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE.—There will be an examination on the Wednesday and Thursday in Easter week, open to all persons under twenty years of age, not yet in residence at the University. The scholarships are of the value of £40 per annum. The classical examination will comprise translations from Greek and Latin, and composition in these languages; in mathematics, Euclid, arithmetic, algebra, trigonometry, and conic sections.

DURHAM.—The Queen has ratified a scheme of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, in pursuance of the Act of 1864, for abolishing certain fellowships in this University, and for appropriating the proceeds exclusively towards the maintenance, extension, and improvement of the School of Theology, and of a proposed School of Physical Science in the Faculty of Arts. Her Majesty has also ratified various other recommendations and schemes of the Commissioners.

WELSH UNIVERSITY.—The proposed University for Wales has met with a good deal of opposition. An Oxford resident states, from his personal knowledge, that at several colleges at Oxford, all the expenses of maintenance and education can be covered by £80 or

£90, and at some halls, by £60; besides which, the scholarships and fellowships of Jesus' College are almost exclusively Welsh. The alleged necessity for a Welsh University on the grounds of economy is thus answered. Another resident Welshman, an Oxford M.A., disbelieves the possibility of ever founding a Welsh University to compare with the old foundations of Oxford and Cambridge, in the quality of teaching. He sees in the "clamour," only the silly old cry of "Wales for the Welsh," and prays that in these days of progress and locomotion, that the principality be not deprived of education at the English Universities, now so easily accessible. Let her and others mingle with the cultivated scholars of England, contest with them the palm of classical and mathematical proficiency, and rub off her dust in an enlarged arena of competition, and show herself superior to those whom, at the ancient seats of English scholarship, she seems in a narrow-minded cry for a Welsh University to fear to encounter.

EDINBURGH.—DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF DIVINITY.—Much discussion has taken place in connection with this new degree. The feature to which many parties object, is that all candidates must have attended for one Session, at least, at the theological classes of the University of Edinburgh. At a meeting of the *Senatus*, held on the 14th ultimo, Professor Christison moved, and Professor Syme seconded, a motion to the effect, that the whole subject should be referred to a conference of all the Universities, which motion was adopted.

APPOINTMENTS.

The Rev. F. Heppenstall has been nominated to the Head-Mastership of the Perse School, Cambridge.

The Rev. Wm. H. Maddock, Fellow of St John's College, Oxford, has been appointed Assistant Master in Malvern College, Worcestershire.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE—*A Good Priest*.—The Minister of Public Instruction received lately the following letter:—"Sir, I am priest in a poor village where many children do not attend school, because their parents cannot pay the school pence. The Prefect allows twenty free scholars here; but that number is insufficient. For many months I have taught from thirty to forty of these poor children in my own house; but I cannot devote time enough to them, and what I have already done for them has injured my health, and interfered with my sacred functions. Many parishes must be in a like case. Please to see if you can help us." The Prefect was immediately summoned by the Minister to explain why the law, which forbids that any child should lose the opportunity of instruction because of its parents' inability to pay the school pence, had not in this instance been observed.

Enseignement spécial.—The plan to be held by this new order of instruction is being defined ever more and more exactly. Here is an extract from M. Bouillier's inaugural address at the opening of the Legal and Medical Faculties at Clermont:—"Between elementary instruction and that called classical, there was a gap which required to be filled up in the interest of those who aimed, not at the liberal professions, but at industrial and commercial pursuits. Living languages without the ancient; courses of literature and science, neither deep nor extensive, but embracing all practical applications; book-keeping and commercial law: this is in sum the programme of the new order of schools. This division of subjects and lessons will not, like the *bifurcation* which

was tried and found wanting, be made at the expense of classical studies. In short, the schools of the new order will be schools of higher and more extended primary instruction, not schools of secondary instruction truncated and dwarfed."

Baccalauréat des lettres et sciences.—The principal new regulations on this important subject are the following:—The examination, both written and oral, shall be confined to the subjects taught in the highest classes of the lyceums, i. e. classical schools. The written examination shall consist of a Latin composition, a translation from Latin, and a French composition on a philosophical subject. The oral examination shall consist in the explanation *ad apturam libri* of a Greek passage, a Latin passage, and a French passage, taken all of them from books used in the lyceums; and in questions on history and geography, philosophy and science, taken also from the manuals used in the lyceums. Any candidate who may have won an honorary prize in literature or in science, at the grand annual competition, either of the metropolitan lyceums, or of all the provincial ones, is dispensed from the corresponding part of his examination for the *baccalauréat*.

Modern Languages.—Whereas hitherto English and German were taught in all the lyceums of France, and no other modern language, henceforth Spanish, Italian, and Arabic are to be admitted; and it is confidently believed that Spanish will be preferred to either English or German in the provinces bordering on the Pyrenees, Italian in those washed by the Mediterranean, and Arabic in Algeria.

Again, whereas the study of modern languages

used to be delayed till the fourteenth or fifteenth year, it is now to be begun at a quite tender age, when the organs of speech are still pliant; and instead of the learned method, in which the grammar and dictionary were the teacher's only tools, the familiar or conversational method is to be used in the junior classes.

Farther, whereas teachers of the modern languages have been hitherto all of one order, and that inferior, as respects both title and pay, a higher order, with the title of *agrégé*, is now instituted. To these *agrégés* will be entrusted the higher classes, which read Shakespeare or Schiller, Dante or Cervantes; while the ordinary teachers instruct the junior classes in grammar and conversational phrases.

Cost of Education.—According to the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique*, each pupil in the subsidised elementary schools of England costs the state about £1 sterling per annum, the corresponding payment in France being only about eighteenpence. And according to the *London Herald*, a military education, such as costs in England £163 a year, can be had in the public schools of France for L.95 a year.

GERMANY—*Dr Karl Schmidt.*—The personal history of Dr Karl Schmidt, with whose obituary the January number of the *Museum* closed, was in sum the following:—Born at Osternienburg in Anhalt, the son of a peasant who still survives, he attracted the notice of the local pastor, Baldamus, himself a distinguished ornithologist, and was thus enabled to attend the Köthen gymnasium. From this institution he passed, with a high attestation of talent and diligence, and of attainment, particularly in Greek and Hebrew, to the University of Berlin; and after completing his theological studies there, he became a simple village pastor, winning all hearts by his eloquence in the pulpit, and the charm of his intercourse in private. From this retirement, however, he was called to the post of teacher in the Köthen gymnasium; and not long after he was promoted to the Rectorship of the Normal Seminary, Gotha, where he laboured, during the last five years of his life, not only in the capacity just mentioned, but also as member of the educational board. His public labour, and the exhausting private studies to which the world is indebted for his writings, wore out a constitution naturally frail; and a visit to the baths last spring checked only for a time the advancing decay. Schmidt died on the 8th November last, in the forty-sixth year of his age; and he lies buried at Köthen, a place that was endeared to him by his marriage, as well as by his early achievements as student, teacher, and writer.

Gymnastics.—On 1st July 1862, there were in Germany 1284 gymnastic societies. Detailed statistics on this subject were not again drawn up till November 1864; and the publication of this second gymnastic census is now eagerly looked for.

Here is a sketch of boy-gymnastics, drawn up by

Captain Königer, and recommended by the Darmstadt society of gymnastic masters, for introduction into the national schools, as exhibiting the minimum that will develop the bodily powers, impress discipline, and prepare for military service. Boys from seven to fourteen years of age,—divided however into three groups, viz. those from seven to ten years of age, those from eleven to twelve, and those from thirteen to fourteen,—are contemplated as the learners. They are to be taught gymnastics by the regular school-master himself, who with this view is to be drilled in gymnastics at the Normal Seminary, and to be specially rewarded for distinction in this branch; and two hours a week are to be taken out of the regular school-time for the proposed gymnastic instruction. These two hours may be advantageously obtained in the form of intervals between other lessons.

The programme of boy-gymnastics comprises—

1. Preliminary exercises, as the simple head, trunk, arm, and leg movement; stamping, marching, and running in time, with others involving great strain, as walking on tip-toe and on the heels.

2. Orderly movement, as the formation of line and column, with the moving and wheeling, first of closed ranks on level ground in time, and then of open ranks on rough ground without time.

3. Running, jumping, and wrestling. For the slow race, the medium of time proposed is twelve minutes, or three times that if walking may alternate with running by way of relief; but in either case, time and order must be strictly observed in the slow race.

4. Exercises with gymnastic apparatus.

5. Games and excursions. The former are to be selected with a nice regard to the customs of each district: in the latter boys of eleven years of age and under are allowed to move and play about as they please; but their seniors are subjected to pretty continuous exercise in marching and running.

Christmas Books.—In a collection of sixty games for boys and girls, published with a view to the merry Christmas season, there is actually one game entitled, "Storming of the trenches at Duppe!"

A society of teachers in Berlin published, for the guidance of parents and others, a list of 107 books suitable as Christmas presents to young people. The books are arranged according to the ages for which they are respectively suitable; the get up of each is described, and its price stated, and brief notices of each to be followed by more detailed ones in a supplement are appended. It is to be hoped that the bad taste admitted into the collection of sixty games above mentioned has excluded it from the list sanctioned by the Berlin society of teachers.

PRUSSIA.—*Salaries.*—According to the official returns of 1859–61, the Government grants to elementary schools amount to only one-twentieth of the whole expense of maintaining them; the school fees amount to two-sevenths of the whole, and the rest is furnished by private endowments. The average

salary of the national schoolmaster is in Berlin £62, in provincial towns £42, and in the country £27. The provinces of Saxony, Westphalia, and the Rhine, are the only ones in which the town average is reached or exceeded, and, with the addition of Brandenburg, they are also the only ones in which the rural average is exceeded. In many districts, the salaries are cruelly inadequate, not indeed for the support of a single man, but for the support of a family. Thus, in the province of Prussia, where, owing to the great cheapness of necessaries, a family of five persons may subsist on £35 a year, the average salary of the national schoolmaster is only L.24; and unless he can make up other £11 by private lessons, or occasional clerking, he sinks under privations, and leaves behind him a pauper family of scrofulous children.

Education among Recruits.—The following statistics shew how far a-head Prussia is in the diffusion of elementary instruction. There are, it appears, unable to read or write, of every thousand—

Irish Recruits,	322
French "	318
English "	239
Scotch "	163
Prussian "	37

BADEN.—*School Politics*.—The school war continues between the Government and the churches, or rather between the Government and the Roman

Catholic Church; for whereas individual Protestant clergymen do, of their own proper motion, decline to co-operate in working the Government scheme, the whole body of the Roman Catholic Clergy have been forbidden by their superiors to serve on the local school committees. The head of offence in the Government scheme is, that it withdraws public instruction entirely from under the control of the clergy, as such, i.e. a clergyman is not *ex officio* a school manager. At the same time, the Government wishes to give the clergyman an opportunity of exercising, in the school, whatever influence may be legitimately his, and even to make him, as a general rule, chairman of the school committee; but the clerical watchword seems to be 'everything or nothing.' In the most priest-ridden places, the day appointed for electing the popular representatives in the school committee passed by without any election taking place. The Government has appointed another day, with certification that, in case of no election taking place on this second opportunity, the Government will itself nominate men to serve on the committee.

Gratitude.—Equality of civil right has been recently granted to the Israelitish community, and, by way of grateful commemoration, the Jews have established a fund under the name of the *Frederic Institute*, for the purpose of succouring all teachers in Baden, whatever may be their ecclesiastical connection. The subscriptions already amount to £2500.

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editor, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS, QUEEN SQUARE, BLOOMSBURY.—At the monthly meeting, 11th January, Mr Ives read a paper on "Science-Teaching in Schools." The present advanced prosperity of our country, the lecturer said, is owing to the practical manner in which the theories of our great thinkers have been applied. Thinkers have established principles and practical men have carried them out. A general knowledge of facts may be possessed and turned to little account, but the mental discipline involved in the investigation after principles would make the power of thinking a common possession and lead to multiplied beneficial results. The knowledge gained from science is interesting knowledge, particularly to those living in the country, such as the clergy. Science encourages the young to trace the sequence of cause and effect, and is an invigorating mental exercise. The lecturer recommended chemistry and experimental

science, succeeded by physiology and natural history, as a proper course in school. He regretted that the Privy Council office tabooed science in elementary schools, virtually restricting them to reading, writing, and arithmetic, while the science department rowed the opposite way and encouraged science by grants. Science-teaching in schools is making great strides. Oxford and Cambridge Universities have enlarged their functions in the cause of science. The London University has established special diplomas for science. The Science and Art Department, Society of Arts, College of Preceptors, and other agencies, are urging on the necessity of science-instruction. The lecturer recommended the plan of lecture-teaching; the students being required to take ample notes and to revise them carefully.

The paper led to a long and warm discussion. Dr Wilson, in opening the discussion, denounced such teaching as empirical, and no science at all, science

being an investigation from definitions which cannot be denied. He did not sympathise with the sorrow expressed at the neglect of science. The great object of instruction was the training of the intellect, and this was best done by making the young acquainted with the noble thoughts of ancient writers. When a youth had become a classical scholar, then he was prepared to investigate science in any direction he pleased. Dr Wilson's position was defended by Mr Watson, but was vehemently opposed by every other speaker, amongst whom were Dr Hodgson, Mr Newcombe, Mr Gillespie, Mr Whiteman, Mr Angel of Manchester. The meeting concluded with the usual hospitable refectation of coffee and cake.

On the second Wednesday in February, Mr Siddons, grandson of the eminent Mrs Siddons, is to read a paper on "American School Reading Books." Mr Siddons is an eminent elocutionist, and has spent the last five years in America.

METROPOLITAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS, IN CONNECTION WITH THE SOCIETY OF ARTS.—Great efforts have been made by this Association, since the commencement of the winter season, to extend in the metropolis the means of imparting technical instruction to adults. Recently a meeting of the parishioners of Fulham was held, under the Bishop of the diocese as president, and educational classes were formed for the instruction of men and women residing in the parish. A crowded meeting was also held in the Abbey Street Schoolroom, Bethnal Green, for the purpose of establishing classes in North-East London. The meeting was addressed by Mr Sales, visiting officer of the Society of Arts, who explained the scheme of education advocated by that society. A goodly number of members were afterwards enrolled. These classes will receive the support of Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, Bart., Mr C. Buxton, M.P.,—the great brewery of Truman, Hanbury, and Buxton, in the neighbourhood, supplying many of the students, and the classes will be under the able supervision of Mr N. Day. The young men and women of Batcliffe were invited by the Rev. R. Atherton, rector of St James's, Ratcliffe, to meet in St James's Schoolroom for a similar purpose. After addresses by the Chairman and Mr Sales, the professors explained the plans they proposed to adopt in their several classes, which will be commenced forthwith. Meetings of a like character have taken place in other parts of London with promising success, and the idea of adult instruction has taken firm hold of the public mind, and we may hope, quoting from the *Saturday Review*, that our adults will not remain much longer our "neglected class."

TEACHERS OF FIFE AND KINROSS.—At the last meeting of the teachers of these two counties, Mr

Guthrie of Pathhead read the report of the committee appointed to tabulate the answers received to the queries issued by the last meeting. The following is a summary of the report:—Children of all denominations attend the schools, irrespective of the denomination to which the school or the teacher belongs; the Bible and Shorter Catechism are taught in nearly all the schools; and practically no "*religious difficulty*" exists. There is no report of a want of schools, but as two-thirds of the schools draw Government aid, these would be very imperfectly supported and equipped were that aid withdrawn. The majority of the teachers think well of the pupil-teacher system, although many think that properly qualified assistants would be preferable. The general opinion was against the Revised Code, but it was urged that if it should be applied to Scotland, it would be only fair that the proportion of children present at the examination who passed, should be taken as the per-centage of the average attendance who would have passed; that teachers certificated prior to 1860 should have *really* a first claim on the grant for the value of their certificates, and that the regulation regarding the station in life of the parents should be withdrawn. Generally the opinion was held that payments founded on examination, under the Revised Code, must always do injustice in many cases, and that payments should be on the principles of the old code, even although the examination may be according to the new. It was agreed that Mr Proudfoot, Kinross; Mr Hunter, Buckhaven; and Mr Cruikshanks, Falkland, should represent the two counties before the Royal Commission, if the Commission should intimate that from want of time they would be unable to examine the whole *ten* formerly appointed.

ARBROATH FREE CHURCH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—A meeting of the Free Church Teachers' Association was held in the vestry of Inverbrothock Free Church, on Saturday, December 17. Mr R. Gray, Bonnington, read a paper on "The Orthography and Grammatical Forms of Middle English." To look at the English language at different epochs of its existence was, he said, like looking at a series of portraits of the same individual in infancy, youth, and manhood. One might at first sight fail to recognise these as likenesses of the same individual, but if there were a continuous series of them through all the stages of transition, the latent identity would become manifest. It was the same with a man's character and opinions, with a nation's character, and with a nation's language. The period called middle English, extending from Barbour to Dunbar, and including Wycliffe, Mandeville, Chaucer, Gower, James I., and others, was eminently a transition period. Mr Gray then illustrated at length the uncertainty of the orthography and the changes that took place in the terminations of words at this time.

in a manner which shewed that he must have read the literature of the middle English period extensively and critically, and which gained for him the cordial thanks of the meeting.

ASSOCIATION OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS IN ABERDEEN, BANFF, AND MORAYSHIRE.—At the meeting of this Association, held at Aberdeen, on Saturday the 7th ult., Mr M'Donald, Huntly, in the chair, it was reported by the Committee on the Revised Code, that they had got no assurance that the obnoxious clause 52 D, which refers to endowments, would be altered. Resolutions in reference to the education question were then agreed to. The most important of these was, "That where schools are established in proximity to the parish school, provision should be made for a division of labour." Mr Fowlie, teacher, Inverury, then read a paper, which included some statistics shewing the effect of the Dick and Milne Bequests in Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray.

NON-PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTERS OF ABERDEEN, BANFF, AND MORAY.—A meeting of this Society was held at Grange, on the 14th ult.,—Dr Shearer, Huntly, in the chair. The meeting agreed to memorialise the Royal Commission on the following points:—(1.) To ask the Commission to allow the Association to report either by a memorial or deputation of teachers, to state the objections which they entertain to the Revised Code; and (2.) what they consider to be the essentials of a national system of education. The opinion of the meeting was, that the Revised Code was unjust in principle, and wholly unsuited for Scotland. They thought that the parochial system ought to be extended, so that a suffi-

cient number of schools might be placed in each parish, and that all the schools should be on an equal footing, instead of having all new schools subordinated to the parochial.

SCOTTISH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLMASTERS.—The quarterly meeting of this Association was held on Saturday 14th January, in the Burgh School, Stirling,—Mr Graham, presides, in the chair. The attention of the meeting was directed chiefly to a consideration of the "Heads of Examination" (see *Museum* for January) issued by the Education Commission. The views of the brethren present having been freely expressed on these and several other points of importance to teachers at the present time, Messrs Agnew, Free Church School, Stenhousemuir; M'Gregor, Tillicoultry Academy; Graham, Burgh School, Stirling; and Macturk, Parochial School, Tillicoultry, were appointed delegates to lay the views of the Association before the Royal Commissioners.

CHURCH SCHOOLMASTERS' AND SCHOOLMISTRESSES' BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION.—The annual meeting was held on 7th January, at the Whittington Club, under the presidency of the Bishop of Rochester. From the report it appears that the Society had made great progress during the year 1864. The Archbishop of Canterbury has become the Patron of the Society, and the Bishops of St Asaph, Oxford, Rochester, and the Coadjutor Bishop of Edinburgh, are in its list of Vice-Presidents. The Bishop of London was re-elected President, an office his lordship has held from the foundation of the Society in 1857.

The Month.

THE POSITION OF TEACHERS.—We are very glad to have before us abundant evidence that teachers are beginning to learn that their position in society really depends on themselves. The teaching profession is a learned profession. Many of its members are far more learned than the majority of lawyers, doctors, or clergymen. And the work which they have to perform is certainly one of the noblest which can possibly fall to the lot of man. How is it then that teachers have so often been treated with contempt? How is it that at the present day the teaching profession does not rank so high as the other learned professions? And what remedies can be suggested for altering public opinion for the better?

It is not our intention to enter into all these questions. What we assert at present is, that teachers themselves have it greatly in their power to produce a revolution in regard to this whole matter. At the bottom of the low estimation in which the teaching profession is held by a large mass of our people, is a low estimate of the value of education itself. The public need to be enlightened. Even many men who occupy important positions in society, are blind to the advantages of high culture. They value sound common sense and practical wisdom. And they imagine that these can be acquired more surely in the business of life than by any amount of intellectual or moral training. With such people it is of no use to

argue. They continually appeal to their own career: "They never had much book learning. They left the school at twelve or thirteen. And yet they have made large fortunes, and have got on wonderfully well." There is no one so conceited as the blockhead; and no one so obstinate in his opinions as the man who has formed them without one good reason. We must therefore leave these people alone. But teachers have to a large extent the forming of the young minds in their own hands. It is their special business to teach a knowledge of one's own self, of one's ignorance, and to beget an earnest longing after more knowledge. If the teacher knows his work and has free scope, there should be comparatively few of his pupils who will in after life entertain the low notions in regard to the work of a schoolmaster which were held and are still held by many of the grown up generation. And we believe a remarkable change is taking place in this way. Since teachers began to inquire into the proper methods of education, since they have conducted their work according to the laws of nature, the affections of the pupils are more drawn out towards them, the pupils leave the school with a feeling of mingled respect and love; and the memories of their teachers will be dear to them for life.

But before this change can be in any degree satisfactory, it is essential that the teacher cultivate his own mind. He must be a man continually acquiring knowledge; and that knowledge must not be a mere farrago of heterogeneous details, but such as shall bear upon the welfare of man, physical, intellectual, and moral. Besides this, every teacher should have his own special studies: studies in which he should be regarded as an authority from the thoroughness and minuteness of his investigations.

Yet even all this is not enough. Teachers must combine. Already there exist various local associations; but in many districts teachers have not yet formed themselves into unions. These associations are of the greatest importance. In the first place, they are useful as giving a stimulus. Teachers come to know each other. They get greater insight into their work. They are cheered by mutual sympathy. And a feeling of brotherhood will give strength to many exertions. But, second, they are exceedingly valuable in important political emergencies. They give expression to the wishes of schoolmasters. They make the community feel that schoolmasters are a power in the body politic. And if all the local associations could somehow be combined into one great union annually or at stated intervals,

schoolmasters might speak with a voice to which even Parliament would listen with eagerness. The local associations in Scotland have felt the advantage of combination in the influence which they can exert on the Commission; and if there had been more of them, and the union greater, the influence would have been greater. There is a great want of these associations in many parts of England, but we trust a new era is dawning. For our part we shall open our pages willingly to any communications on this subject, to any suggestions as to how the status of the profession is to be raised, and how the various members may combine most effectually.

EDUCATIONAL MONOPOLIES.—The Educational Monopolists to whose monopolies we draw attention, as being real obstructions to the advance of the highest education in this country, are the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Scotland. We do not object to these monopolies in the spirit of free trade. The principles of political economy are applicable only in these matters, in which the principal motive is the pursuit of wealth. But education is certainly not the sphere where the pursuit of wealth is the principal motive, much less the only motive. In many cases we must not think of wealth at all; and therefore it is utterly absurd and contrary to the express declarations of Adam Smith, and his eloquent expounder Buckle, or to those of the ablest exponent of Political Economy in our own day, John Stuart Mill, to apply principles which are based on the supposition that self-interest is the only motive to matters where unselfishness is imperatively demanded.

Nor do we attack these monopolies in the spirit of fault-finding. The old and the new continually clash—for no other reason than that the world is changing. Great social changes are at present taking place in the British empire, and the arrangements for the highest education in the universities above named, once good in their time, are now unquestionably acting as obstacles. Since the English universities were established, the country has abandoned Roman Catholicism. Roman Catholics were turned out and English Churchmen admitted. Since the time of the Reformation, large and influential bodies of dissenters have arisen, and men of great power have appeared, who did not, and do not, belong to any portion of the Christian Church. Besides this, the Welsh and the Scotch are more and more being fused into one body with the English, and at least they form integral portions of the British empire. But while all these changes have taken, or are

taking place, the honours and offices of the English universities are open only to members of the English Church. Roman Catholics are excluded, dissenters are excluded, Welsh and Scotch are excluded unless they sign the thirty-nine articles. Why should this be? The thirty-nine articles have nothing to do with high culture. They are not the necessary beliefs of every citizen of the British empire. A member of Parliament has not to sign them. If a man can be a citizen of the British empire and a member of its Legislature without signing the thirty-nine articles, why should he have to submit to this imposition before he can become a member of the national universities? We can see no reason. On the contrary, of all places a university should have the greatest freedom of thought. But, as matters now stand, it is easy to see why Roman Catholics and dissenters should feel aggrieved at their disabilities. It is easy to understand why Welshmen are trying to establish a university for themselves, and why Scotchmen who have consciences should rather go to Germany than to Oxford. We can see also in this exclusiveness, good reasons for the fearful dearth of independent scholarship in England, and the almost entire dependence on Germany for what is new and fresh in all departments of philology.

The Scottish universities are not exclusive, like those of Oxford and Cambridge. They are strictly national and unsectarian. But in them, also, a remnant of old ways of thinking is damaging the advance of the highest learning, and may give rise to strange results, if the universities do not face the difficulties of the case. In the olden times, the magistrates of a Scottish town issued decrees that any one not sending his children to the burgh school should pay a sum of money, just as if his son had attended. The object of this regulation was to provide an ample endowment for the master or masters. Following the same idea, the Scottish universities decreed, and still decree, that any one not attending certain classes shall not be entitled to become members of those universities. This has partly arisen from the amalgamation of the College with the University, and it is partly a necessity, because the chairs are not properly

endowed. But the most cogent reasons can be urged why this arrangement should no longer exist. Universities are bodies that confer degrees. These degrees should be conferred purely and solely on account of merit. If a student is able to pass the examination creditably, it should be to the university a matter of no consequence where he got his learning, who was his teacher, or whether he was entirely self-taught. National universities act most unjustly and most irrationally for the interests of the highest kind of culture, if they refuse degrees to men who through great difficulties, and often in the midst of great poverty, have the perseverance and the energy so to cultivate their own minds without external aid, as to equal or surpass college-bred men in the special studies of a university. They act most unjustly towards teachers of every class when they compel the attendance of candidates for degrees on a few singularly privileged individuals. The remedy in Scotland is to separate the functions of the universities entirely from those of the Colleges, and if possible to form one university out of the four existing. At the same time it would be absolutely necessary to make the endowments of the Scottish Professorships much larger than they are at present. If something is not done, there is every prospect of a large body of the Scottish people being alienated from the universities. The columns of our last number, and of this, contain letters from Scottish teachers urging the holding of examinations in Scotland by the University of London. This would be unnecessary, if the constitution of the Scottish universities were as rational as that of the London University. And the whole body of dissenters in Scotland, if their theological professors are an index of their opinions, are in strong protest against the obligation to attend some theological classes imposed by the Scottish universities on all candidates for the degree of B.D. The argument against the attendance on any class is as strong as the argument against the attendance on the theological classes; and we trust that the excitement prevailing at present among the teachers and preachers of Scotland, will lead to the entire removal of antiquated restrictions and monopolies.



THE MUSEUM,

AND

English Journal of Education.

MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION—WHAT TO AIM AT, AS WELL AS HOW TO AIM.

BY WILLIAM ELLIS.



ON hearing that a Commission was about to issue to inquire into the state of "Middle-Class Education," one's thoughts could not but revert to the previous Commission for inquiring into the state of "Popular Education," and of our "Public Schools," and to the reports consequent upon them.

Searching and laborious as these inquiries were, and able as were the reports, it has always appeared to us, that they would have been much more effective and useful, had there been an introductory exposition of the purposes for which education is desirable. We will not say that these purposes were not perceived and admitted by the Commissioners, but if they were, the avowal of them was repressed, and the reports might have been just what they were, had the Commissioners never bestowed a thought upon what we conceive to be the reason of our being at any pains about education at all.

Whether our attempts to improve the education of the children of the poorer classes have of late been too ambitious—whether we have not been doing actual mischief by "over-education" (whatever that term may mean)—whether we shall have accomplished all that is desirable, when we shall have secured for these children instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic—whether in our public schools the time of the boy is not too

exclusively devoted to the classics and mathematics—whether more importance should not be attached to the knowledge of some modern languages—whether a little attention should not be bestowed upon physical science—and whether the subjects taught, whatever they may be, are taught in the way best adapted to secure proficiency in the learners, are all matters which have been handled by the Commissioners, but, as we think, less effectively than they might have been, if examined and discussed throughout, with the aid of the light and guidance to be obtained by keeping constantly in view the purposes for which the work of education of any kind ought to be engaged in.

As regards the relative claims of the ancient and modern languages, it would be premature to discuss them till it has been settled whether the study of objects and phenomena should precede and accompany the study of language, or follow after it. If objects and phenomena are to have precedence, modern languages might command a preference, in as much as they alone supply the names and explanations of the larger part of the objects and phenomena, which in these days principally engage our attention; and these languages are more immediately needful in the intercourse between nations. But if instruction in objects and phenomena is to be put aside, whether temporarily or for ever, for the study of language,

we suspect that our preference would be bestowed upon the ancient languages, in as much as they are more difficult to learn, and are seldom learned so as to be conversed in, and hence scholars are less liable to suffer from a flow of words in advance of ideas. This is not to be despised as one of the collateral advantages of teaching ancient rather than modern languages. For the opportunity of accumulating stores of words irrespective of any ideas to be represented by them, is one of the greatest dangers to which the juvenile intellect can be exposed; as a facility in pouring them forth is one of the greatest impediments in the way of curing those who are afflicted with confusion or bewilderment of understanding.

In considering the question, how far the study of language should be allowed to precede the study of objects and phenomena, it will not be lost sight of, that the objects and phenomena which are treated of in the books out of which the young are expected to acquire practice in reading, to learn construction of sentences, and to study models of style, are men, and their conduct, and manners: Narratives, histories, biographies, and poetry are made up of words denotative of the dispositions, attainments, and actions of men—which words are made more or less to imply approbation and disapprobation, whether upon grounds which will stand examination, is often a matter of contention among men of great experience. Boys may read and write, and construe and parse the phrases in which these words occur. Can they judge whether the words are appropriately used? Take such words as virtue, honour, prudence, liberty, despotism, perseverance, obstinacy, earnestness, bigotry, consistency, orthodoxy, heresy, conversion, perversion, generosity, fidelity, parsimony, justice, and mercy; is it desirable that learners should be encouraged to deal freely in their youthful compositions with terms intended to express approbation and disapprobation, the grounds of which they may not only be incapable of understanding, but careless to inquire into?

There are teachers, men excellent in many respects, and accomplished scholars too, who seem to act upon the notion that inquirers, the like of ourselves, who have never taken a part in school work, are not qualified to form or express a judgment upon what professional educators are doing. We cannot proclaim too loudly our dissent from this doctrine, even if we are not competent to judge of the means by which the end of education may best be attained. We are competent to judge what those ends are. Stated broadly, few people (teachers included) would hesitate to admit that they ought gladly to welcome any new arrange-

ments, or modifications of existing arrangements, calculated to bring about an increase of well-being. Teachers who resist attempts to inquire into their proceedings, insist, by implication, that education in their hands is doing all that can be expected from it in behalf of the advancement of well-being. They tell us, that the distinguished promoters of education in the olden times were no less desirous than ourselves of improving society, and were well qualified for directing the work which they originated, and that it would ill become us to call in question that which has earned the approval, and even the veneration of all subsequent teachers, and of the scholars educated under them.

These objections, founded as they are upon the tacit assumption that the arrangements for education of olden times are so near perfection, as not to be susceptible of improvement—as not to warrant inquiry, lest inquiry should lead to change which should not be improvement,—suggest some rather startling comparisons and reflections. Can it be true, that the profession of educator, acknowledged to be one requiring attainments of the highest order, should have reached perfection at a time when all other professions were so far removed from it as later improvements have shown them to have been? People engaged in all professions and branches of business, educators included, are, we will say, contributing their services to the best of their ability towards the improvement of society. Their predecessors were aiding in the same work. In every department of industry, unless we except education, although the end sought for is, as heretofore, human well-being, the means by which it is sought are very different.

We are no more anxious for artificial light than our ancestors were; but we are better provided with it, because we have substituted coal-gas for oil and tallow candles. In like manner, with no greater anxiety than before, for rapid and safe travelling, we have abandoned posting and fast coaches for the locomotive and the railway. With the same purposes as before, the semaphore has been made to give way to the electric telegraph, and we obtain the motive power to propel our ships across the ocean, not from the fickle and intractable wind, but from steam extracted from the very water which floats them.

The scholars, divines, and other educators of the people, do not rank themselves, as far as we have become acquainted with their sentiments, nor are they ranked by others, below the classes who have succeeded in providing us so much better than formerly with light, and locomotion, and intercommunication. According to them, and quite in conformity with our own views, the

highest order of intelligence, and the highest order of moral excellence, ought to be the attainments of those who are entrusted with the duty of forming the minds and characters of others. But surely it may reasonably be doubted whether the higher attainments of educators can have sprung into perfection at a time when the inferior attainments were still so incompletely developed. Why, then, should there be any backwardness among educators, we will not say, in admitting that the system and methods adopted and adhered to by them ought to be changed, but in allowing us to inquire whether they have attained perfection in their own most arduous vocation—that of bringing to bear with the greatest skill the highest knowledge, for the purpose of fitting the young to work out and enjoy well-being?

An inquiry into prevailing education, with a view to ascertain how far it is accomplishing all that can be expected from it, can be scarcely approached with much prospect of striking out anything of practical utility, unless it be preceded by a correct appreciation of the state of society, where the education is actually at work. It may then be possible to form some estimate of the influence for good which education has hitherto exerted over the well-being thus far enjoyed, and of how much more it might be made to exercise in future, and to point out some of the changes by which this greater good is to be effected.

We will set out by proposing two questions, about the answers to which there can be no difference of opinion:—

1. Are the present inhabitants of this country, as compared with their predecessors, on the whole better informed, and more capable of applying their knowledge so as to promote well-being, and hence in the enjoyment of a happier state of existence?

2. Is the present state of existence, chequered as we see it, with pleasure and pain, joy and sorrow, hope and fear, susceptible of improvement, that is, open to improvement through any exertions of which men themselves are capable?

We assume that there is a perfect unanimity upon the answers to these questions, and that the answers are in the affirmative; and in so doing, are not forgetful that less than a century ago, the superiority of the savage to the civilized state was maintained with great vehemence by advocates of considerable ability, who had many adherents. But the remarkable increase of knowledge, and the still more remarkable increase of aptitude in applying knowledge to purposes of well-being in these latter days, have swept before them all predilections in favour of barbarism, and the ingenious sophisms on which they rested.

Unanimity begins to disappear when means are proposed for bringing about that improved state of existence which is admitted to be possible; and it is to the consideration of these means that we wish to invite attention. As, however, it is accepted as an established fact, that our present state of existence is an improvement upon the past, the knowledge of the means, if obtainable, by which that improvement was effected, may help us in our endeavours to learn how those who are disposed to engage in the work, may hope to bring about the further improvement agreed to be possible.

There can be little doubt, if proposals were widely circulated, inviting expositions of the means by which the inhabitants of Great Britain had acquired a so much more comfortable state of existence than that which was enjoyed by the inhabitants of this island previous to the invasion of the Romans, that the expositions tendered, would vary greatly in many respects. And yet, we fancy, accordance or similarity in some respects would be traceable in them all. Not one would deny that the earth is made to produce greater crops, and to sustain greater numbers of sheep and cattle; that, with the assistance of wind, water, and steam, the raw products of the soil are worked up into a greater quantity and variety of fabrics adapted to give comfort, health, and pleasure; that our means of transport, locomotion, and communication are superior; our supplies of fuel, water, and light are more abundant; and that we are better provided with the means of preserving health, and of keeping off or mitigating the painful consequences of accidents and disease. As little would it be denied that modern superiority in the matters named, and in many others are partly a consequence of the greater extent of our knowledge, of the continued accumulation of knowledge upon knowledge, and of the substitution of real knowledge for that which had been mistaken for it.

When from the possession of knowledge, we pass on to that of readiness or aptitude in applying it, doubts may be felt whether there has been any or much advance in that. It might be contended that the greatly increased produce of industry which we enjoy, is sufficiently accounted for by the increase of our knowledge, and that there is no justification for claiming more than the same readiness and aptitude in applying our increased knowledge, than were to be seen in the application of our lesser knowledge. We will defer awhile any attempt to decide between the supporters of these opposite views. Other investigations which we have to make, may help us to a right decision upon this question. We shall be satisfied for the

present with the admission, which cannot be withheld, that knowledge combined with the capacity of applying it in the production of the necessities and comforts of life is more advanced, and also more generally diffused, than it ever was at any former period; and to confirm the truth of this statement, we need but point to the greater abundance of wealth.

Wealth, however, is not well-being. It is only a means of well-being. But we must bear in mind that although it is only one among many means of well-being, it is an indispensable one, since well-being without wealth is impossible. Nevertheless, how far wealth will contribute to well-being must depend upon the manner in which it is used or consumed.

The terms in common use to denote many descriptions of ill-conduct, such as profligacy, dissipation, debauchery, uncharitableness, and gambling, all point to the ill-conduct, not of individuals devoid, but of individuals possessed of wealth. They indicate a belief that wealth, an indispensable element of well-being, may be converted into an instrument for the production of misery. Not only may a large income, which the heir to it could not have earned, and has not the capacity to use, help him to no well-being; it may hurry him into misery. Experience has shewn us that increased wages in particular channels of industry, resulting from other causes than the increased attainments of workmen, have not assisted them to become better parents, or better conducted men in other respects. While, then, we accept wealth as an indispensable element in well-being, we ought not to forget that wealth must be accompanied by the capacity to use it if a state of well-being is to be enjoyed.

An inquiry into the causes of increased well-being really becomes, if we would avoid wild and unmeaning dissertation, an inquiry into the causes of increased wealth, and of increased capacity in using it, so as to produce increased well-being. The number of the inhabitants of Great Britain is more than ten-fold what it was in the earlier period of its history, and its wealth is more than a hundred-fold. How has this change been brought about? What causes preceded it? We may be baffled in our attempts to trace the remoter causes, but we can only hope to get back to them through the proximate causes. Accordingly, we had better search for the proximate causes in the first instance. Among the antecedents and concomitants of this change, we see many that are acting as heretofore. The causes of change are not to be found in them. As far as we can learn, the island is not larger, the soil

not more fertile, the powers of water, wind, steam, and electricity, no greater, minerals not more abundant, nor are the various substances scattered over the land more susceptible of disintegration and recombination, so as, in the form of a gas, to suspend sensation, or, in the form of a microscope or telescope, to bring us acquainted with objects invisible to the naked eye. If, then, the elements and forces of nature which prevail around us are the same as heretofore, except as modified and directed by human agency, the cause of the difference observable in man's state of existence must be sought for in man himself.

And there it will not be sought in vain. For it cannot be doubted that the men of this generation have more knowledge, with the capacity of applying it in the production of wealth, than the men of any previous generation. The more we reflect upon the increased knowledge of modern times, with the capacity of using it for the purposes of production, the more satisfied shall we be that we have hit upon the principal, if not the only, cause of the marked difference between the present and past states of existence. Powerful as this cause is, we recognise it in its character of a proximate cause only, and one which invites us to continue our search into its cause or causes among the antecedents which our records of the past has preserved for us.

At this point attention ought to be steadily fixed upon what, at first sight, might be considered an insuperable impediment, if not to the progressive, at least to the rapid uprising of the human race in the scale of existence. It is needful not only that man should know more and more, but that the old knowledge should be imparted to the ignorant new comers, who are destined, in an uninterrupted stream, to take the place of those already instructed. The children born among us, with our present advanced knowledge, are quite as ignorant as those born two thousand years ago. The causes which produce such very different men and women out of the children born among us now to those of former days, must be sought for in the external influences brought to bear upon the children. It would scarcely be contended by anybody, if our children were to be transplanted at birth to some distant land to be reared by savages, that they would grow up to be men and women capable of participating in the orderly and systematic work as now conducted under the direction of those who are most distinguished for knowledge and aptitude.

Our present improved state of well-being implies not only increase of knowledge and aptitude, but also opportunities for the ignorant and incapable continually pouring in upon us to become as

intelligent and capable as those whom they are destined to replace. How far these opportunities are the result of contrivances specially intended to impart knowledge and aptitude; how far they present themselves undesignedly as inevitable consequences of past knowledge and aptitude, and how far the contrivances specially intended to impart knowledge and aptitude are adapted for their purposes, remain to be inquired into. The growth of knowledge, or the continual addition of new to old knowledge, is a subject which there will be more hope of our approaching successfully if we reserve it till we have inquired somewhat carefully into the opportunities which have been hitherto afforded to each generation to acquire the knowledge and aptitude of the preceding.

Go where we will, in every department of industry, we see proofs of the increased knowledge and aptitude of which we have spoken, and also proofs of the ignorance and ill conduct more or less disturbing the operations, and diminishing and damaging the products, of industry. The young continually received into existing establishments, such as they are, while open to profit by the knowledge and aptitude, are exposed to suffer by the ignorance and ill conduct with which they are brought into contact. Thus we have simultaneously before our eyes the increased knowledge and aptitude which have helped to make us what we are, and the ignorance and inaptitude lingering among us to prevent our becoming what we might be. These may be accepted as indications of the direction in which efforts ought to be made, still farther to improve the improved state of existence which has been prepared for us by our predecessors.

The action of government must not be left unnoticed. It stands conspicuous among the proximate causes of well-being. The perfection with which it accomplishes its purposes may safely be attributed to the knowledge and aptitude prevailing among a people, but is a sufficiently peculiar manifestation of those qualities to deserve to be separately investigated.

Our government and institutions, improved as they have been, and more particularly of late years, are generally acknowledged to be intended to make us happier and better—to defend the well-being which we enjoy, and to encourage us in our efforts to increase it. They are not supposed to be perfect or unimprovable; but the parts susceptible of improvement by any process within the reach of our present capabilities, bear a small proportion to those which are well adapted for their purposes. As regards our internal relations, our intercourse with one another, they are contrived and directed with a view to restrain all

individuals who will not, or can not, regulate their conduct in conformity with what society in general considers indispensable for its well-being. As regards our external relations, our intercourse with other nations, they are intended to promote freedom of communication and interchange of benefits.

A very slight acquaintance with modern history suffices to make known that a great change has come over us in our views of what ought to be the action of government in its bearing upon both our internal and our external relations. Restrictions upon freedom and compulsory service used to be the connection between the government and the governed. Now the prevailing feeling is, that the governed should be left unrestricted, except where interference is clearly called for by regard for the general well-being, and that the services of individuals are to be voluntary, not compulsory. A spirit of rapacity and extortion used to be the characteristic of our dealings with other nations; and ignorance directed this spirit, so as to lead it away from the very wealth which it sought to grasp. For we then thought to enrich ourselves by ruling the inhabitants of other lands, and monopolising their trade, unable to perceive that if they were allowed to rule themselves, and to conduct their industrial and commercial operations as was best for themselves, we should escape the expense and responsibility of governing them, and profit more in our trade with them.

Amplification upon these topics is unnecessary here. It does not admit of a doubt that if the changes which have taken place of late years in the spirit and character of our government and institutions have not been caused, they have been rendered possible, by the increased knowledge of the people. And we can scarcely fail to be led to inquire whether every improvement of which our government and institutions are susceptible, may not be obtained through a wider diffusion of knowledge.

During the growth of our nation there have been noteworthy events which may have given the direction to our progress, such as it has been. The invasion and conquest of this island by the Romans, the triumph of William the Conqueror at Hastings, the expulsion of the Stuarts, the union of England and Scotland, and the subsequent union of them with Ireland, are such events. It is difficult to surmise what the state of society might be at this moment had events occurred of an opposite character to these. Again, stress is sometimes laid upon the influence of our insular position, of our climate, and of the varied mineral stores with which we are favoured. We

notice these antecedents and concomitants of our present state of well-being rather than leave them unmentioned, lest it should be thought that we had overlooked them as agents which have acted and are acting in our favour. It is almost superfluous, however, to point out that these latter agents could only have been made to work in our favour through our own knowledge and our capacity in applying them. The sea affords facilities for invasion as well as for defence, and obstructs as well as promotes commercial intercourse.

Extend our inquiries as widely as we will, and resolve as we may to exclude from our thoughts nothing that can be supposed to bear upon our present and future states of well-being, two causes or agents stand out prominently from among all the rest: the state of our knowledge, and our aptitude in applying the knowledge which we have. And indissolubly united with these chief agents of well-being is the uninterrupted departure from among us of the instructed and the capable, and the arrival in their place of ignorant and incapable, to be or not to be made, according as they are dealt with, instructed and capable.

If we could feel that our present state of well-being was all that we desire and expect, it would be unreasonable to attempt more than to conserve and perpetuate the machinery at work among us for the conversion of ignorant and incapable infants into instructed and capable adults. But our feelings are very different. We are everywhere in immediate contact with an amount of destitution and misery, which is most distressing to all, with the exception of that frivolous and unthinking crew who would be able, like Nere, to fiddle while contemplating Rome in flames. Neither have we far to seek for causes of much of this destitution. Examples of dishonesty, drunkenness, extravagance, dissipation, incapacity, suspension of work occasioned by disagreements between employers and employed, and misuse of credit, both in giving and taking it, meet our eyes in the columns of the daily papers devoted to reports of our police, bankruptcy, and other courts of law. The culprits and their victims thus exposed to view bear but a small proportion to those who are partially excused and screened by their friends, but who, nevertheless, surely, though silently, slip out of the ranks of industry, and sink into dens of filth and corruption, or seek shelter from them in the poorhouse.

The more thoughtful members of society may not be all of one mind as to the best means of removing these causes of misery, but they are beginning to suspect that, whatever room there may be for difference of opinion in some respects,

the means adopted must comprise contrivances for removing the ignorance more or less observable in those who bring suffering upon themselves.

Here we are brought back to the consideration of the means by which ignorance and prejudice, or ignorance disguised as knowledge, may be diminished in the future. To contend that many of the causes of misery above indicated do not originate in ignorance, but in evil passions and depraved dispositions, is to start an objection more plausible than valid. For all must admit that to have right conduct and the disposition to act upon the right and avoid the wrong, the distinctions between right and wrong must be understood. But to understand these distinctions, and to be able to follow them in all their ramifications, and in their various directions and minutest forms, and to desire to seek for them, is what we mean by knowledge and fondness for learning. A community endowed with these qualifications will be preserved from destitution in its more aggravated form, and also from the temptations to misconduct which are inseparable from destitution; and the children growing up in it, will be trained as well as taught in circumstances most favourable, both for their dispositions and for their intelligence.

It seems idle to ask, looking at education from this point of view, when it should begin, or at what age it may be expected to prove most effective. As soon as external influences begin to operate in forming the disposition and in awakening the intelligence, so soon should efforts be made to direct those influences aright. At whatever age it may be found that those efforts have not been made, at that age, without a moment's delay, should efforts be made, not merely for the future, but to compensate for the omissions of the past. The consideration of infant, day, evening, Sunday, and adult schools for all classes is embraced in this general description, and it is implied that the later the age at which the work is begun, the more difficult will it be found. There is no rivalry between infant, juvenile, and adult schools, extended even to universities, the latter being continuations of, not substitutes, for the education in the former. The best of university education is possible only after the best of infant and juvenile teaching and training.

We cannot afford, on this occasion, to enter into the details of school arrangements, whether directed to the teaching or to the training of the young. We simply implore the Commissioners to direct the inquiry upon which they are about to enter, with a view to ascertain and to point out the means by which schools may assist in forming boys and girls into capable and well-conducted

men and women, persuaded that those means are to be found if searched for in earnest.

Two opportunities have been lost; there is now a third. It will be sad, indeed, if, with the signs of progress in everything else, education is to stand apart untouched and unimproved by the increased powers which observation and experience have helped us to. There is little to encourage us in this tripartite division of education into upper, middle, and lower. But the middle plank is alone left to us, and we cling to it with the tenacity and hopefulness of a shipwrecked sailor. An inquiry into middle-class schools by men who know what to aim at, may do a service which their predecessors who inquired into the upper and lower left undone. All depends upon the end which the inquirers propose to themselves. We are anxious to learn, not merely whether middle-class education is efficient, or in what particulars it is deficient, but how far, whether effective or ineffective, it is directed to the improvement of society. If not so directed, its very inefficiency might be a merit.

Some years ago we happened to be among a numerous party dining together, previous to a visit of inspection to an evening school attached to a large industrial establishment in this metropolis. The conversation naturally turned upon subjects connected with education, and, as will happen, fortunately in these days, doubts were expressed whether the character of the education generally provided was as good as it might be. One of the guests grew warm and excited at some of the criticisms made upon what he evidently held to be above criticism. He was a thriving merchant. He had three sons—one in his own business, one at a university, and the other in the army. He was the sublime of soaring middle-classness. The climax of his justification of education as it is, and for leaving it undisturbed, was that the classics were the best basis for the education of the upper classes, and the Bible for that of the lower. Another of the company, who had been a silent listener to the conversation, here asked diagonally across the table whether it was meant, in thus reserving the classics for the rich, and surrendering the Bible to the poor, to convey an impression of the respective merits of profane and sacred literature. This question, as may be supposed, caused no little confusion to a man who evidently spoke as if in authority. Of course, he meant nothing of the kind. In fact, he made us believe that he meant nothing at all.

Towards the close of the inspection which followed, our silent companion was requested to say a few words to the lads assembled; and in less

than a quarter of an hour his simple unpretending talk, interspersed with questions, drew out from them an expression of their ways of thinking and feeling upon the duties which they had to perform; how they might injure or benefit their employers, and what effect would be produced upon themselves, according as they did the one or the other; what wages they received, and why they neither received more nor less, and how they hoped to receive more in future; what the use to them was of the school work in which they had been engaged, and why their employers had assisted them to it; whether it was easy for them to save out of their small wages, and if not, why they should make the attempt; how the large capital, by means of which they were employed, had been accumulated; and when people ought to begin to form a habit of making provision out of present earnings for future wants; whether the trust reposed in them ever offered temptations to do wrong; what effect the yielding to or resisting such temptations would have upon the comfort and prosperity of their employers, and what upon their own and upon the building up of the dispositions and character upon which their future happiness depended.

It was gratifying to hear the warm expression of thanks which, on the impulse of the moment, our admirer of classical and biblical education proffered to his troublesome interrogator. He seemed to feel for the time that something more might be done towards forming the intelligence and dispositions of the young than to cram them with words and phrases, whether extracted from the classics or the Bible. It was sad to think how transient the favourable impression made upon him was likely to be.

It might be said that an inquiry into schools would not be complete if, after an examination into the public schools and schools for the poor, these for the middle classes had been passed over. Let us hope that the future report upon middle-class schools will not leave the inquiry as incomplete as before. Our impression is, that if the inquiries already made had been conducted with a view to test the efficiency of schools as auxiliaries in qualifying the young to distinguish right from wrong, and in inspiring them with the feeling that their conduct, as well as their words, ought to be an expression of their convictions, the middle-class inquiry would be unnecessary. Up to a certain age, the teaching and training best for the children of the poor, is also best for the children of the rich. Beyond that age, the wealth of the parents determines the length of time for which the children can be detained from

work to carry on further schooling. If, however, our own judgment in this matter were overruled, and we were driven to decide upon the merits of schools for the children of the poor and the children of the rich, by a different standard, we should be disposed to judge somewhat in this way:—

Those schools for the children of the poorer classes are the best which are most successful in fitting them, and in preparing them to become fit to preserve themselves from destitution:—

Those schools for the children of the richer classes are the best which are most successful in fitting them, and in preparing them to become fit to preserve themselves, in the expenditure of the wealth which they will have no occasion to earn, from frivility, profligacy, and indifference to the sufferings and helplessness of others.

We will not express the opinion which we have formed of the merits of these two classes of schools, estimated by these two tests which, it must be admitted, are the very opposite of severe. The Commissioners who have inquired into them, have not favoured us with theirs. We trust that the Commissioners now about to inquire into middle-class schools, will not be equally reticent. These schools contain some children who will not be called upon to earn the means of subsistence among the many who will have partly, if not wholly, to do so. We hope the Commissioners will, at least, tell us how these schools stand the two very humble tests which we suggest should be applied to them; and if they come somewhat ignominiously out of the trial, what changes will enable them to stand similar tests more creditably in future.

ON DISCIPLINE.

“**M**EN'S thoughts are much according to their inclinations, their discourse and speeches according to their learning and infused opinions, but their deeds are after as they have been accustomed.” With these words Lord Bacon commences his essay on *Custom and Education*, and perhaps we could not find a better passage with which to preface a few practical remarks on Discipline. Considered in its widest sense, this word embraces physical, mental, and moral training. In the last of these three aspects only, however, do we intend to consider it at present; and yet, even in this restricted view, few will be disposed to underrate its value. There is no scheme of education in which the maintenance of discipline is not an essential feature; and there is no teacher who does not profess to keep up some kind of discipline in his school. And yet, how various and conflicting are the theories upon this subject! Some would maintain a military strictness among their pupils; others would allow the greatest possible freedom consistent with proper attention to lessons. From some schools the rod is banished entirely; while in others, it is considered that to spare the rod is to spoil the child.

Perhaps there would be less diversity of opinion with regard to the means necessary for keeping up discipline, if what the term implies were more clearly understood. With very many it is but a means to an end. Of no value in itself, discipline

is considered necessary in order to keep boys at work. Hence a little noise is not objected to if the pupils are only busy with their appointed tasks, and sometimes an impertinent scholar is tolerated because he is quick at his lessons. Or, perhaps, the teacher is very strict so long as his pupils are in school; once let the school hours be over, and the boys may run wild. Boisterous spirits are natural to youth; and it is thought that children will more readily submit to order and obedience when in school, from having had their own way when out. To maintain discipline under such circumstances, is a difficult task, though no doubt it is sometimes done. It requires a firm hand to rule high-spirited youths, alternately checked and indulged; turbulent as fiery steeds—

Incalcare animi, cervixque repugnat habenis.”

And since this notion of discipline is a very common one, it is no wonder that a great many teachers fail in this part of their duty, and that “first-rate disciplinarian” is rarely met with.

To us, however, it seems that to consider discipline as only a means to an end, and as altogether subordinate to instruction, is to take too narrow a view of it. We have already spoken of it as “moral training,” and we think it should consist essentially in the formation of good habits. Such a view of it would render our efforts towards its attainment more intelligent and effective, while to train up children to habits of punctuality, neatness, obedience, and quiet industry, is to them,

at least, as valuable as any amount of mere instruction we can impart. Much of the knowledge gained at school evaporates afterwards, but habits formed there cling to a man through life.

It may be urged, that what has just been said on the importance of moral training is no new idea; that in all good schools attention is already given to it. This we readily admit; but too often this training is confined to mere instruction in moral duties, without due regard being paid to the practice of them; and again—and this is more to our present purpose—this moral training is considered as something in addition to, and entirely distinct from, discipline properly so called. When a boy is punished for any breach of discipline, the reason generally is, that if such delinquencies were allowed, the work of the school could not go on properly. But it would be acting upon a higher principle if the master considered, not so much the effect of the fault upon the working of the school as upon the boy's own character. This is the principle which, we contend, should regulate all rewards and punishments: the improvement of each boy's individual character. Occasionally, a boy will prove incorrigible; expulsion is then the best thing; but these are exceptionable cases. As a rule, children will yield to the force of habit, and will in time grow to love the ways which were once irksome to them. The stream, guided at first in its course, will gradually wear for itself a channel in which to flow.

We shall perhaps best illustrate that view of discipline which we have endeavoured to explain, by noticing some of its results. In the first place, it will check impatience on the part of the teacher. A young teacher often enters upon his duties with the greatest enthusiasm. He knows that the children of the school to which he has been appointed are ignorant, rude, and disobedient; but, he thinks, there is the greater room for improvement—the greater honour to be won in reclaiming them. For a while he labours earnestly; he takes every possible opportunity of pointing out to his boys the attractiveness of virtue, the odious nature of vice, and often he is pleased with the answers received from them in the course of his instruction, and some good impression seems evidently to have been made. But, alas! there is little improvement in conduct; some flagrant act of disobedience or wrong is committed, and all his labour appears to have been spent in vain. He grows disheartened; he thinks there is something peculiarly vicious in the class of children amongst whom he has been thrown; or, if he be of a timid character, he may begin to doubt his own fitness for the profession he has chosen, and he becomes

wretched and miserable. Such an experience as this is by no means uncommon amongst trained teachers who are sent out, often at a very early age, among children whose home training has been sadly neglected. But something like this must have been felt by all teachers, with whatever class of children they may be thrown in contact; and often the most conscientious feel their ill success the most. But only let such teachers clearly understand the nature of the work in which they are engaged, and half their doubts vanish. They should recollect that, in many cases, their pupils have been long accustomed to bad habits, and that although they may very willingly assent to all their teacher tells them, still it requires some time to get rid of those habits. They may speak according "to their infused opinions," but they will act as they have been accustomed to do—the spirit may be willing, but the flesh is weak. Let the teacher, however, have faith in his work; if bad habits have been formed, good ones may. It is perhaps a work of time, probably will be, but no doubt the longer the process, the better it is done. A few characters may easily be traced on sand, and the next wave obliterates them, but when once a word has been engraven in a rock, it remains for ages.

In the next place, it may be remarked that, since the notion of discipline, for which we contend, depends upon the formation of habits, it matters little whether a teacher's manner be kind or severe, provided he be firm and consistent. Much will depend upon a master's own character and disposition, and to expect every one to adopt the same means in maintaining discipline, is to endeavour to fit them all to the bed of Procrustes; and yet this is very often done by school-managers, inspectors, and other promoters of education. Each gentleman has his own notion of the way in which the discipline of a school should be kept up; and, setting up this notion as his standard, he denigrates the efforts of others as excellent, good, or fair, just in proportion as they agree with it. There are of course exceptions to this statement, and there is a passage in one of Dr Morell's reports which it would be well for some of the other inspectors constantly to bear in mind. In contrasting some schools in his district, he says:

"In the Stockport and Droylesden schools *equally*, the order is *rigid*; the discipline maintained with the utmost exactitude; the spirit pervading the whole of the classes one in which subordination, carefulness, and systematic attention are steadily *enforced*, not harshly indeed, but with stringent regularity; and the result of all this is seen in the *uniform progress* of the children

through all the classes, and in the mechanical perfection of the details. In the school I am now referring to, a different system is pursued. The order, at least in appearance, is not so strict; the mechanical details are not so perfect; the gradations from class to class not so uniform. But in place of this there is a peculiarly friendly relation established between the teacher and the children, which, while it does not interfere with the necessity of *his will* being the law of the whole school, puts less restraint on the pupils, and renders their mental development more free and natural. Hence, while on the one hand you have perhaps less *measurable* progress, you secure more personal influence, more action upon the feelings and dispositions of the mass of scholars, and probably more direct moral effect. It were useless to compare these two systems of management as being the one either better or worse than the other. They depend *wholly* upon the nature of the teachers, each one of whom will best succeed by following out the method to which his disposition and experience most naturally lead him.*

But not only will the methods for maintaining discipline depend very much upon the character of the teacher, they will, or at least they ought to vary with the characters of the children. A kind manner may sometimes be imposed upon, and the authority of an indulgent master set at defiance. On the other hand, if the reins are held too tight, fear, on the part of the pupils, may produce hypocrisy; or perhaps a high-spirited lad whom a kind word would have gained, is driven by harshness into open rebellion. The characters of children should therefore be to some extent studied. One rule, however, must be observed by all who wish to bring about a good moral tone in the school—whatever command is given must be obeyed; whatever is forbidden must never be allowed. The only really bad disciplinarians, therefore, are those teachers whose characters and dispositions are so changeable that they are never in the same mood two days together. For habits are formed by repeated acts; and if by firmness an impression is made one day, and then effaced

through indulgence the next, no progress can be made, and the children become irritated and vexed. This fickleness of character among teachers is far from being uncommon, and may arise either from weakness of character or infirmity of temper. We all recollect Goldsmith's Village Schoolmaster—

“Well had the bediag trembler learned to trace
The day's disasters in his morning face;”

and there are not wanting examples in these days of teachers whose treatment of their scholars depends very much on the way the world treats themselves. Of course under such circumstances there can be no moral training.

Lastly, the notion of discipline, for which we contend, will lead us to understand that a system of rewards as a means of keeping up discipline—concerning the efficacy of which there are great differences of opinion—might become a very powerful means of good. It is true that boys who work steadily in hope of a reward are not impelled by the highest motives, but in the meantime a good habit is being formed. And besides, through life men are constantly being deterred from certain things through fear of punishment, and led to do others through hope of reward; and why should this not be the case in the little world of school? Of course we do not lose sight of the fact that, in themselves, actions are good or bad according to the motive which prompts them; but what we wish to impress upon our readers is, that however good be the motive, the practice will remain defective unless strengthened by habit. And supposing there are wrong motives at work, or even none at all, it is well for a boy to conduct himself respectably, both for his own sake and that of others.

In conclusion, if a teacher intends to establish real discipline in his school, which shall not be mere surface work, but shall elevate the moral tone of his scholars, he will begin by endeavouring to implant among them good habits; and this he will accomplish by quietly, but firmly, getting them to practise, day by day, what it is right for them to do. And in the end, whatever may be their opinions, or even professions, they will do what they have been accustomed to do.

W. L.

* Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, 1857-8, p. 521.



THE ORTHOGRAPHY AND THE GRAMMATICAL FORMS OF THE MIDDLE PERIOD OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.*

PORTRAITS of the same person, taken at remote periods, present contrasts so striking that at first sight you probably fail to discover any similarity, and even after the nicest scrutiny has detected hidden points of resemblance, you may still require to be assured of their identity. Old features have disappeared, new lines have been traced, other developments made, and you exclaim, "How great the change! Unless I had been told, I could never have imagined them to be portraits of the same man!"

It is far otherwise when you examine likenesses between which shorter times have elapsed. The changes are so gradual, the blendings so delicate, that the similarity is quite obvious. In some instances, moreover, such comparisons lead to the remarkable discovery that, after new features have become familiar, the face again assumes its old appearance, and the person is his former self once more.

Again, you watch the progress of a man's mental and moral history. You have close personal intercourse with him at distant periods, or you study his writings published at times considerably separate. As in the case of the portraits, the dissimilarity is very prominent. His early beliefs are now his heresies; theories once fondly cherished have been discarded, and into their places other opinions or prejudices have been installed. New terms of expression and another style of language help to indicate different epochs of the man's moral and intellectual life.

But if, on the contrary, the intercourse continues unbroken, if you study his writings in succession, the changes are so gradual, the renunciation of one set of principles and the adoption of another, the disbanding of old forms and the assumption of new, are made so gently—with so much indecision, as it were—that you feel it difficult to say, "Here has been the turning point, there a new bias has been received in this other place. 'Old things are passed away, behold, all things are become new!'"

Neither, however, are mental and moral relapses so rare as to be considered extraordinary phenomena, for the workings of the mind are so

irregular, the heart so unreliable, that after long estrangement, the man may be found returning to his cast-off principles and practices with all the ardour of a first embrace.

What holds true of individuals is equally characteristic of nations. They too have their epochs. They progress, they stand still, they even relapse. Refinement in that age, is barbarity in this. Opinions in science and religion, which in one generation secured for their votaries death on the scaffold or at the stake, have become the current belief of another, while the most certain faith of former times is now-a-days despised and ridiculed.

The shapes and colours which were the ornaments of bygone days, are by us esteemed fantastic and uncouth, while we pronounce their language barbarous, their habits uncivilized. Once more, how true it often is that we think we mend our ways when we adopt the fashions of other times, and devoutly follow the footsteps of our forefathers.

Such changes in social forms, in creeds, in dress and language, become the landmarks of histories, whether national or individual, civil or ecclesiastical, social or literary; and no page in history is more fascinating than that which paints the forms and fashions of different times. Merely to note the points of similarity and contrast, to follow the advancement to refinement, on the one hand, or the retrogression to comparative barbarism on the other—not to speak of the higher gratification adventurous minds will find in speculating as to the causes of such changes, reason and ingenuity, fact and fancy, all conspiring to leave him in a state of subtle perplexity, or bring him to a satisfactory conclusion,—merely, I say, to make such comparisons, to watch such changes, is interesting as well as profitable.

It is strikingly interesting, for example, to find that the foundation of that language which the greatest geniuses have found to be a vehicle abundantly sufficient for all their wealth of thought, lies buried amid what may, not without irreverence, be called the rubbish of the Saxon period; intensely interesting to trace its growth up through the old English period to the modern; and not less so to observe the gradual processes, the delicate blendings of the transition periods, respectively named the semi-Saxon and the middle English. To observe how particular vowels are at one

* A paper read by R. Gray, Esq., at the Arbroath Association of Free Church Teachers.

time courted and caressed; at another despised and shunned; how long-established terminations assign this place to interlopers, which at some future day are also destined to sink to neglect or disgrace; to see words now holding envious positions in the poet's high enditing, which at another time are to be circumscribed to the innocent prattlings of babies, or the whispering lips of nursery-maids; to find this expression gradually making way to respectability, and again relapsing to the level of its contemptible origin; to find illustrations and turns of thought with which the pious divines of another age pointed their morals, afterwards become the ribald utterances of the thoughtless and profane; to notice styles of pronunciation that have long been in dishonour, bravely struggling against overwhelming odds for a foothold in respectable society; to witness adventurers without name, without pedigree, but befriended by high patronage, gradually causing others to subside to a lower stratum, from which, by some equally trifling casualty, they may return to place and honour; to make these observations is interesting and profitable, but it is also to learn that language, not less than man himself, is the creature of change, of growth and decay, of fortune and misfortune, of honour and disgrace.

For the illustration of such changes,—in particular of those which have come over the orthography and the grammatical forms of our language,—what more fruitful field presents itself than that period in which the rude and feeble utterances of an embryo language developed into the refinement and strength of the English tongue; when Langland exposed the vices of a corrupt religion; when Chaucer mingled the laughter of comedy with the tears of tragedy, and threw the halo of his genius around the superstition and science, the religious and social forms, of his time; when Gower moralised, and James I. and Dunbar wrote their allegories, Barbour and Blind Harry sang the exploits of heroes, Wiclif and Douglas aided in unlocking the treasures of antiquity; and Mandeville and Wyntoun served up their mixtures of fact and fiction?

The irregularity of the orthography of these writers cannot fail to strike one forcibly. In the same page,—nay, even in the same line,—words often wear garbs as motley as the dresses of the period. How pleasant, in these days of codes and inspectors, to be allowed to let fancy indulge the same freaks in arranging vowels and consonants! It is true the once current coin, *boc*, would be pronounced base; but then *bok*, *boke*, *buk*, *buke*, and *book* would pass unchallenged. The Saxon form, *heah*, would certainly be scored; but *heigh*,

highen, *haye*, *hye*, *hie*, *hy*, would be as secure from rebuke as our modern shape—*high*. One little fellow fond of parti-coloured stockings and speckled things in general, might adorn his page with such variety as the following:—*litel*, *lytil*, *littil*, *lityl*, *lytill*, *lytyl*, *lityl*, *lyte*, and *lite*, and that without having recourse to the older fashions, *lytel*, *lyt*, or the newer one, *littile*. Examples of this sort could easily be multiplied, but other features invite attention. The frequent appearance of *y* in place of *g*, as in *yefes* (gifts), *forjet* (forget), suggests an investigation which leads to the discovery that *y* has already displaced both beginnings and endings in which the Saxon *g* figured. This statement may be attested by referring to the older form of the words *away*, *day*, *may*, *holy*; *yberied*, *ywedded*, *yellow*, *youth*, *yelde* (yield). It will be noticed, however, in the case of such participles as those cited, *i* is sometimes preferred to *g* and that *y* often gives place to *z*, as in *zeer* (year), *zit* (yes) (Mandeville). But again, in *amyd*, *tyme*, *nyght*, &c., *y* stands for the Saxon *i*; and although much remains to be done in conquering the old form, *ieh*, in such words as *schapeliich* and *everiich*; and that of the French *ee* and *ie*, as seen in *citee* and *merciee*, there can be no doubt that *y* is gaining the ascendancy. On the other hand, *y* must confess to having lost place in *firste*, *sinne*, *self*, &c. Some of the reverses *g* has met with have already been indicated; but it will be found that it has also disappeared from *merwe* (morrow), *seuwe*, *felaw*, &c.; and that its place in *lyying* (lying), *eyghes* (eyes), &c., is very insecure. The misfortune of *g* leads one to inquire whether it has found refuge elsewhere; and we are answered in the affirmative by such words as *wrightes*, *daughter*, *thurgh*, &c. But even in such positions *g* is not safe from attacks, as witness *syebt*, *fecht*, &c. (Barbour); and also, where its companion *h* shares the same fate, *knystis*, *almazte*, &c. (Wiclif). The following groups from Chaucer,—*quik*, *stok*, *cok*,—*nekke*, *sakke*, *wikke* (wicked),—*wicke* (wicked), *recceh*,—*werche* (work), *moche* (much), *whiche*,—illustrate the state in which the Saxon *c* is found. Such words as *picee*, *glorie*, *bataille*, *assant*, declare whence they have come. Each of the forms, *bridel*, *nobil*, *murdre*, *ones* (once), represents a class of words which we write somewhat differently; while such spelling as *hore* (whore), *fread*, *cum*, *wimmen*, would better suit our pronunciation than that which we practise.

Vp for up, answer for answer, deserve for deserve, &c., attest the exchanges which *s*, *u*, and *w* made with one another (Gower, King James, &c.); while *quherevir*, *quhele* (wheel), *quhistith*,

dc., as seen in Wyntoun, James I., and Dunbar, illustrate a growing peculiarity of Scottish spelling.

Nothing is more common to modern eyes than the diphthongs *ea*, *ez*, *ie*, and *oo*. In the leading authors of the middle English period one seldom meets them; but the following are very common: *grene*, *quene*,—*recrete*, *grete*,—*yelde*, *bere* (*bier*), *boke*, *toke*. To these we have such exceptions as *dooth*, *gooth* (King James), *deepe*, *aloone* (Wielif). The substitution of *o* for *oe* is another characteristic of Scottish orthography. In Chaucer and King James, *ey's* and *ei's* are very fashionable, as witness, *attheyne*, *ageyne*, *deintees*, &c. Barbour and Wyntoun shew another tendency in writing *agayne*, *dayte*, *thai*, *thair*, &c. King James also writes *thai*, *thair*. An examination of the following words will afford some idea of the interchanges between vowels coming before *r*:—*cherche*, *chirhe* (*church*), *cherle*, *chorle* (*churl*), *fer* (*far*), *parfit* (*perfect*), *turment*, *werk*, *wirk* (*work*), *hyr* (*her*), *nevir*, *birn* (*burn*), *airly* (Chaucer).

This letter *r* seems to have the effect of assimilating the vowel sounds, and consequently the pronunciation seldom indicates the vowel that is used. Consider the sound of *a* and *e* in *starve* and *serve*, of *e* and *i* in *fir* and *her*, of *o* and *u* in *work* and *church*, of *u* and *i* in *fur* and *sir*; and in particular, consider the similarity of the pronunciation of the final syllables *ar*, *er*, *ir*, *yr*, *or*, *ur*, *our*, as in the words *liar*, *lier*, *tapir*, *taper*, *anchor*, *anker*, *angur*, *anger*, *satire*, *satyr*, *zephyr*, *elixir*, *ardour*, *squalor*. So, then, it appears that before *r* at least, one vowel would serve the purpose of pronunciation as well as another. Consider again the tendency that vowels not in the above predicament have to adopt the sound of one another, as seen in the words *and*, *sat*, *pat*, which, by too much refining, become *end*, *pet*, *set*; in the words *not*, *accomplish*, which are often pronounced *nut*, *accomplish*; in the standard pronunciation *come*, *obey*, &c.; and in the innumerable blunders that are daily perpetrated. Consider all this, and it will not be difficult to understand how the authors of the period under observation, beset with different dialects, and destitute of any fixed standard, must have found orthography a matter of great perplexity. The want of a standard was, however, by no means an unmitigated evil. One advantage is made obvious by the transpositions and contractions which the poets habitually used to suit either rhyme or metre.

Turning to the other part of our subject, we find that the merest fragments remain to indicate what the numerous declensional and verbal forms of the Saxon had been. Adjectives are not now

declined; even the formation of the degrees of comparison is not exactly what it was. Of nouns there is only one declension to which such words as *fons* for *fess*, and *stone* for *tos*, the exceptions. The plural number and the possessive case end in *es* with English writers, in *is* with Scottish. Wielif is an exception to his countrymen in making his plurals end in *ey*; and King James to his, in an occasional use of *es*. Nor have the pronouns escaped disaster and confusion. Chaucer and his countrymen sometimes write *he*, *ich*, or *Ik*, but oftener *I* or *Y*, and almost always *hi*; *thei* is seldom met—*hir* (*theirs*), *heir* (*them*). Instead of *hi*, *hir*, *heir*, the Scottish writers, not excepting King James, use the old demonstrative forms *thai*, *thair*, *thairis*. As another specimen of the confusion into which the pronoun had fallen, take these from Chaucer—*oursel*, *himself*, *thyselven*, *herselven*.

A good many of the old terminations still cling to the verb. So far as the singular of the present tense is concerned, there is nothing peculiar to be noticed, but a tendency with some writers to omit the *t* of the 2d person as seen in the following phrases from the "King's Quair":—"Thou *seis*, what dois thou," &c. In Anglo-Saxon, *ath* was one of the two forms in which the plural of the present tense ended. *Ath* became *eth*, and the new form *en* was adopted. *Eth* is occasionally met in the writers of this period, and *en* is quite common.

In the following verses you have the termination *eth* modified into *ith* or *gith*, *en*, and *e*:

"And eke in token of that pitous tale,
Quhen so my teris *dropen* on the ground,
In thaire nature the lytill birdis small
Stynteth thair song, and *murnyth* for that stound;
And all the lightis in the hevin round
Off my greunce *have* such compaciens,
That from the ground *thai* *hiden* thaire presence."
—(KING'S QUAIR).

These two phrases from the "King's Quair"—"*flouris* springs," "there be many that *feynis*"—and many that might be culled from Wyntoun, Dunbar, &c., shew that *eth* or *ith* was also changed into *is*. It must have already been noticed, that in the grammatical termination, the Scottish authors give decided preference to the letter *i*.

Let us now attend to the past tense. In Saxon the plural ended in *on*. *On* became *en*, and prevailed till the Old English Period, when it began to be rejected. In Wielif this form is very common, and even in Chaucer it has a firm foot-hold. From each of these I give a quotation:—"Summe wymmyn of ouris *waden* us afere, which bifore

day were at the graue. And whan his bodi was not foundun, thei *comen* and *asciden* that they *sighen* (saw) also a sight of angels (Wiolif.) The rich folk that *embraceden* and *oneden* (united) all thir (their) herte to tresour of this world shal alepe in the sleping of deth."

"Accepteth than of us the trewe entent
That never yet *refuseden* your heat."—CHAUCER.

None of King James's past tenses end in *en*. The peculiarity with him is a Scottish one. Instead of *ed*, he has *id* or *it*. The strong form of the past tense is more uncommon than with us; and some find the past of shriek, shrighit, of reach, raught, of quake, quoke, of quench, queinte, of laugh, lough; &c.*

In *Piers Plowman*, Gower, and Chaucer, it is quite common for the imperative in both numbers to end in *eth*—a modification of *ath*, one of the Saxon plural forms. These quotations may be taken as specimens:—Children heth still (*Piers Plowman*).

"Now goeth together of one assent,
And taketh your avisement."—(GOWER.)

"Now draweth outte, or that ye forthir twinne;
He which that hath the shortest shall beginne.

Sire Knight (quod he) my maister and my lord,
Now draweth outte; for that is min accord,

* The prefixing of *to*, apparently for the sake of intensifying the expression to the past tense, is very common, as in these examples:—

"Christes blessed body thei *to-brest* (burst)."—CHAUCER.

"That *to-frushit* (destroyed) that (what) they might owerkak."
—(BANSOUR.)

"With the blast the leiffe (leaves) all *to-shake* (shook)." —DUNBAR.

Cometh nere (quod he) my lady prioress;
And ye, Sire Clerke, let be your shamefastness—
He studieth nought: lay hand to every man."

—(CHAUCER.)

"The Prophet Jeremie sayth in this wise: Standeth upon the wayes, and seeth and axeth of the old fathers; and *walketh* in that way."—(CHAUCER.)

In the "King's Quair" there is only one instance of this form of the imperative. It occurs in the line,

"Forgive all this, and schapith remedye."

The Old English infinitive termination, *en*, which had usurped the Saxon form *an*, is gradually disappearing. True, in Chaucer and his countrymen you soon collect a lot of such phrases as *shall maken*, *way tellen*, *to wedden*; but in the "King's Quair" they do not occur often, and in Dunbar they are seldom or never met. *For* is very often prefixed to the infinitive, as in the expressions, *for to be*, *for to say*, *for to dien*. *Till* sometimes takes the place of *to*, as in the phrase, *till bide* (Dunbar).

In the very frequent use of the participial termination *end*—Saxon, *ende*—the Scottish authors contrast with the English, who almost always adopt the modern form *ing*.

Under the head of Grammatical Forms, other peculiarities attract attention, but I shall conclude with a quotation illustrative of the frequent use of more than one negative in the same sentence:

"He will not suffern hem (them) by non assent,
Neither to ben y-beried, ne y-brent."

—CHAUCER.

SCHOOL WORK AND HOME INFLUENCE.



ONE of the chief difficulties, with which teachers have to contend in the discharge of their arduous duties is the apathy of parents. One of the chief difficulties of parents and the main source of their apathy, is the impossibility of their forming, by any of the usual means within their reach, a correct estimate of their sons' progress, or of the character of the teaching in any given school. Flagrant carelessness on the part of teachers or schoolmasters it may be only too easy to discover, and even nicer flaws in discipline and management it may need no extraordinary skill to detect; but it is very seldom that a parent can satisfy himself (even when anxious to do so) how far the system under which his son is being

trained is good or bad, and whether the progress he is making is real or only apparent.

This is a hard case for the good teacher. He gets little or no credit for his work. His methods are not understood. The results of his labour are not duly appreciated; they are often unduly depreciated. His best efforts go for nothing, because they are honest and unpretending, while the noisy charlatan is esteemed a very patron of schoolmasters. Parents complain to him that their their boys "are not grounded," meaning all the while, as D'Arcy Thompson says, that they "are not ground." Many a good teacher has failed because he was not understood, and because he had no practical means of making himself understood, and his worth felt. And many an inferior,

not to say positively bad, teacher, has succeeded from the very same causes. The same ignorance and indifference which leave the excellences of one man undiscovered, also conceal the defects of his more knowing neighbour. Where success is regulated by fashion, caprice, and other adventitious circumstances, it is not strange that the most artful jockeyship should frequently bear the palm.

It is also a hard case for the judicious parent. He may really be anxious to know "what's what" in the matter of education. He may be truly solicitous about his son's progress; but it is the most difficult thing in the world for him to satisfy himself on either point. Probably he cannot himself gauge his son's acquirements. He may ask his teacher about him, or receive a monthly or quarterly report regarding him, but it is not for the teacher to give his pupil a bad character, because that so far compromises himself; and the more unscrupulous the teacher, the more flattering and the less faithful will be the report received. Indeed, this system of reporting seems to me to place the teacher, however honest he may be, in a false position, and the more honest the more false. It is like asking a builder to report upon the strength and thoroughness of his own work. He may give an honest report, but if he should not how is his dishonesty to be detected? Perhaps by a slipping of the foundation, and the structure nodding to its fall. So our anxious parent will discover the flaws in his son's "grounding" only when the superstructure, such as it is, is completed, and when the time and the opportunity of repairing it have passed away. It needs no Solomon to tell us that the building was insecure when it has collapsed about our ears. He is but a Job's comforter who tells you that your son's education had been bungled, when the youth has turned out a spendthrift or a ne'er-do-weel. What is wanted is some means of discovering the flaw in time to prevent the ruinous consequences. In nine cases out of ten the discovery comes too late; it is easy to be wise after the event. The subtle nature and the remote effects of education itself will always make it difficult to know what it is really worth while it is going on. It is the more necessary, therefore, to proceed with great caution in this whole matter; to avoid rash conclusions as well as merely adventitious and fashionable tests, and to search earnestly for safe, practical, and legitimate methods of inquiry. I cannot suppose that I am the only schoolmaster who has felt the difficulties of this question, who has lost faith in annual examinations and quarterly reports, or who has tried to devise a method of gauging and exhibiting the progress of his pupils, that would

be equally fair and satisfactory to himself, to his pupils, and to their guardians. There is likely, however, to be something suggestive, if not positively valuable, in the experience of every man who has tried honestly to grapple with the difficulties of this question. It is in the hope that my experience may be of use to professional brethren similarly situated with myself, that I venture to lay it before the readers of *The Museum*.

Before proceeding to do so, I must notice another difficulty which perplexes the whole matter, and from which both schoolmasters and parents suffer. Hard as it is for a parent to know the kind of instruction and training which his son is receiving, it is harder still to make him know and understand the extent of his son's capacity, or incapacity, as the case may be. It takes a long time to convince a man that his son is a dunce, that he has a weak intellect, or a bad disposition. If he turn out badly, he will blame everything and everybody rather than his son or himself. It should perhaps be regarded as a wise arrangement of providence that is so. But this peculiarity belongs to that part of our nature which is driven by instinct, rather than to that part which is led by reason. The bear will fight to the death for her most mischievous cub. We are as blind to our children's faults as we are to our own: perhaps because they are our own. Many a schoolmaster, it is to be feared, has had too good reason to adapt the poet's prayer to the case of foolish fathers and fond mothers, and to say,

"O wad the powers the gifts gie them
To see their sons as ithers see them."

The sapling entrusted to your care, with the strongest parental assurances that he is a genuine, and will prove a fruitful, vine, turns out a prickly thorn in your hands; yet the father looks for grapes notwithstanding. If in Scotland, he may be the most defiant thistle, yet figs are expected; and you, and you alone, are blamed if they be not forthcoming. How long will men forget that they can not gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles; that an evil tree can not bring forth good fruit; that seed sown in stony ground,—however precociously it rush up at first,—cannot but become parched, and wither, and die? When Frank is backward in French, it is because Monsieur is not a good teacher. It is never taken into account that Frank is an idle dog, who spends the better half of his French "lesson" in "improving" the portrait of M. de Pagnet, which adorns that gentleman's excellent *Treasure*. Of course "boys will be boys." True; but if

that excuses their frivolity, may it not also have much to do with their ignorance?

This persistent parental blindness has many evil consequences; but the most serious is, that the home influence is misdirected, and, instead of going to strengthen the hands of the teacher, goes to encourage the idle and the slovenly in their perverse ways. Nothing so confirms a refractory youth as the knowledge that he will be excused or supported at home; nothing so completely disarms him, and compels him to surrender at discretion, as the consciousness that his father will second the schoolmaster in all his attempts to subdue his turbulence, or arouse him from his lethargy. It is of the utmost moment, therefore, that this concert and co-operation of teacher and parent should be secured. The confidence and hopefulness which the teacher derives from it, is an immense stimulus to him in his daily work. Satisfaction to the parent, and ultimate profit to the pupil, are inevitable results. But how is the co-operation to be established? Only, I reply, by making the parent thoroughly aware of the actual capacity of his son, as well as of the actual worth of the education he is receiving. This it is the object of the system I propose to explain, as far as possible, to accomplish.

When I say that it is a system of periodical written examinations, I may not appear to be prepossessing anything new. Many teachers are in the habit of systematically examining their pupils in writing, on the work of a half-year, or of a shorter or a longer period. It is therefore necessary to add, as distinctive features of this system, *first*, that each quarterly examination embraces all the subjects taught in the school; *second*, and most particularly, that *each boy's written papers,—exactly as they come from his hands,—are regularly sent home to his parents or guardians, accompanied by printed copies of the questions, which have the proper numerical values attached to each answer.*

The questions are printed on sheets having a double column in the margin. In one of these columns there is entered the *maximum* value which each question can obtain. The other column is left blank, for the master to insert in it, opposite to each question, the proportion of the maximum value allotted to the pupil's answer. The master makes no marks or corrections on the manuscript papers. He simply examines them, compares them with one another when necessary, and enters the values, without note, comment, or emendation of any kind. Whatever comment or explanation is deemed necessary, is made by the head-master in a special report upon each boy's

papers, which is accompanied by a summation of his values in all the departments of his examination.

The *maximum* value for each subject is 100. Any boy's allotted value in one subject, therefore, is an exact per centage, showing his *special* proficiency in that subject. By comparing his per centage in any two or more subjects, we ascertain his *comparative* proficiency therein. By striking the average of his per centages, we ascertain his *general* proficiency in all the subjects which he is studying. These results obviously enable us at once to compare the working of one pupil with that of the others in his form; but, still further, by taking the average of each form, either in one subject or in all, we are able to institute a comparison between form and form. Thus we are able to call in the aid of a wholesome rivalry between pupil and pupil, and between class and class, which may be stimulated by suitable rewards. The latter and wider element in the emulation has a most important influence. There is often apt to be something selfish in the rivalry between one boy and another; but when, besides this, there is rivalry between one form and another, every boy in a form has a direct interest in getting his neighbours to do their best. It is like the working of an eleven in a cricket match: each man has not only to make the best score he can for his own credit, but to do his best, and to get the others to do their best, for the credit of his eleven.

The great recommendation of the system, however, is, that it keeps each parent constantly informed regarding his son's mental state, and thus keeps up a constant home interest in each boy's progress. Important in all cases, this is especially so in the case of parents who reside abroad, by whom the system is very highly prized. A man who wants to know what his son is doing, and how he is doing it, has not to rely upon vague and general reports, or on *ex parte* statements either from masters or pupil. He has only to refer to these papers, which are a faithful transcript of the ordinary work of the school from day to day and month to month; and from these he is able,—with the help of a more learned friend than himself when necessary,—to form a very correct judgment as to his son's advancement. In this way, he will soon discover his strong and his weak points. A comparison of his averages in different examinations will show the steadiness of his working, or the reverse; and thus he can gauge his son's diligence, from time to time, as well as if his studies were being prosecuted under his own eye. He has before him a quarterly

transcript of his son's mind; which is as valuable as an intellectual report, as a quarterly photograph would be for shewing his robustness and personal appearance.

I can imagine a cynical reader who has followed me only thus far, sneering at the whole affair as a comprehensive system of cramming, whereby the masters are in league with the boys to deceive the parents. The frequency of the examinations, and the sending home quarterly of the questions and answers, are so far a safeguard against any such fraud. But a far more effectual check is in practice provided. In the alternate quarterly examinations (or half-yearly) all the papers are set by independent examiners,—university men of standing,—and they examine, not merely on the work of the preceding quarter, but on the work of the preceding half-year. On these occasions the passages selected for translation, and the questions to be asked, are wholly unknown alike to masters and to pupils, until the hour of the examination strikes. And as the answers are then written without the aid of books, or notes, or hints of any kind, there is here a guarantee of the good faith of all parties concerned. It may be asked, why not have all the examinations conducted by these examiners? For this very valid reason, that the fact that the teacher is to examine on his own work gives greater interest, and secures greater attention, to his daily lessons. The pupils cannot tell which day's work the teacher may pitch upon in his examination. They are, therefore, constrained to attend to every day's work; and thus the working is continuous, systematic, and healthy, in a word, the very reverse of all that we associate with cramming. But again, the teacher cannot tell what passage may be selected by the examiner. He is therefore constrained, equally with his pupils, to attend to every day's work, and not to give his strength only to those parts of the work upon which he may himself intend to examine. It is desirable, as well as fair, that boys should be examined by those with whom, and with whose method of questioning, they are familiar. But there is an important advantage, in these days of competitive examinations, in their having occasionally to encounter an examiner who is a stranger. From this part of the scheme, the masters themselves often derive great benefit. They see questions set by others on the very work in which they have been engaged from day to day, and these are often suggestive and corrective in a way which only the initiated know how to appreciate. Thus, while the introduction of independent examiners affords the best security for the fidelity and honesty with

which the examinations are conducted, the combination of these with the teacher's, enhances in many ways, and to all parties, the value of the scheme.

It gives greater practical interest and point to the examinations that their results are the main element taken into account in deciding the prizes awarded at the end of each year. But the system has an advantage for those boys who are beyond the reach of prizes, and who do not come under the influence of competition. No doubt prizes have a good effect upon the best boys in a class or school, that is upon those who are likely to get them, or just to miss them. But the proportion of these is always small, and, moreover, they are generally the boys who stand least in need of such a stimulus. By far the larger number find themselves "nowhere," and many of these, before they have advanced many paces, quietly drop out of the race. Now to these boys our quarterly examinations are a great boon. They bring the influence of the home circle to bear upon every boy, whether he be genius or a dunce. They give every boy fair credit and value for his work, no matter how slight his power, or how low his relative position in his class. They consequently produce a far higher average of attainment over the school than is usually met with. It may not increase the number, though it improves the character, of the dukes; but it certainly reduces very materially idleness and lethargy, as well as the number, of the inferior boys. And a school whose worst pupils are above the average of stupidity is certainly doing more good and better fulfilling its end, than a school which is lucky enough occasionally to send out a genius.

While the system thus does justice to every boy in the school, it also secures that justice is done to every branch in its curriculum. I have said that the examinations are the chief means of deciding prizes. These prizes are in the main awarded, not for excellence in one subject, but for excellence in all the subjects of study combined. The aggregate value attached to each subject depends upon its acknowledged importance; proficiency in Latin, for example, goes for twice as much as the same degree of proficiency in French. There is thus an inducement for each boy to excel, not in one favourite study merely, but in all the subjects which he is studying at one time. The result is not a narrow, one-sided, and special development, but thorough and general culture. To preserve a corresponding development of mind and body, gymnastics and calisthenics have their place in the scale of values, as well as Latin and mathematics. Nothing, that is to say, is excluded

from the "general business" of the school, which tends to develop the whole man in his moral, mental, and physical constitution. The same system, moreover, is participated in by boys of nine years of age, and by youths of eighteen. Besides the advantage of applying such a test to every stage of a pupil's progress, it is of importance to accustom him to this ordeal from an early age, that he may not, at a later period, be perplexed by merely mechanical difficulties. The simple exercise of writing such a paper is of itself an admirable training, and develops qualities which inspection, or oral examination, alone, will never reach. From this early habit, too, of expressing his thoughts on a variety of subjects, in writing, a boy soon acquires considerable accuracy of thought and freedom of expression.

To these explanations of the scheme, I need only add my conviction of its fitness to remove the difficulties referred to in the commencement of this paper. It establishes an intimate relation between the parents and the school, and gives them complete insight into all its plans. It allows them to see at once its excellences and its defects, and enables them to suggest improvements, either in general arrangements, or in particular cases, where they are considered desirable. The system

is of course most easily worked in a school of limited numbers; but, with a proper division of labour, there is nothing to prevent its adaptation to the largest public schools. If it were adopted there, there can be little doubt that it would give an immense impetus to truly intellectual training, and ere long effect a complete reformation in the most decayed parts of our public school system.

In conclusion, let me say that I have studiously avoided the faintest or most remote allusion to any particular school. It is, perhaps, the best proof of my disinterestedness that, having found the system successful in my own experience, I have thus freely and fully explained its details for the benefit of my professional brethren. But in recommending it to their earnest attention, I cannot conceal from them that the test is a severe one, alike for pupils and for masters. I must also warn parents against expecting from the system anything like perfect performances. But in its very severity, a great part of the value of the system lies. And while teachers may be startled by the first results, they will, in the end, be more than rewarded for their anxiety by the satisfaction they will derive from knowing how far their laborious efforts are being attended with success.

Διδάσκαλος.

Correspondence.

LOGICAL ANALYSIS.

SIR,—Can you favour me with the information whether a complete logical analysis of any work has yet been published? I am striving, for practical purposes, to acquire this important and useful branch of knowledge, but can obtain no competent instruction, oral or written. The system of Morell, which I have studied, appears plain and simple; yet, when I come to reduce it to practice, I find myself beset with doubts and difficulties.

This is not very surprising, for your pages prove that far more advanced students than myself, view the same passages in very different lights. I have procured the annotated editions of Macbeth, first book of Milton, Cowper's Task, but all fall short of what I need. I was about to try M'Leod's Goldsmith's "Traveller," but your review of January convinces me that it would be equally unsatisfactory with its predecessors.

What I seek for is the complete, *not partial*, analysis of a work, say "Enoch Arden," in a tabular form. Could you not induce some of your contributors to undertake it, or else add a page or two to your magazine for such a purpose? I am sure it would be an inestimable boon to teachers like my-

self, who have been educated under the old Murray routine, and are desirous of acquiring a more enlightened method.

Allow me to cite an instance of my difficulties, which you will perhaps kindly solve in your next number if you can spare the space:—

Query.—"Enoch Arden," page 3, lines 11, 12,—

"And the girl

Seemed kinder unto Philip than to him."

Is *kinder* an extension of the predicate, or an attribute of girl, and so to be deemed a part of the predicate, *seemed* being regarded as of the nature of the verb to be?

Unto Philip. Is it an ind. comp.? or must it be regarded as a prepositional phrase, dependent on *kinder*?

To him. Should the ellipsis be supplied? or may it be taken with the words *unto Philip*?

If you can give me counsel or aid, you will greatly benefit one who has the cause of education greatly at heart, and, actively engaged in the work, is most anxious to obtain beneficial results. She has also the satisfaction of being your constant reader and subscriber.

M. E. S.

ELOCUTION.

SIR,—In your January number of the *Museum*, you called the attention of teachers to the Lectures of Professor D'Orsey on Elocution, at King's College, London.

Wishing to avail myself of the same, I made enquiries respecting the time of delivery, but found it unsuitable.

Having found great difficulty in teaching boys the proper use of their arms, &c., in delivering the "speeches," I am anxious to find a work upon the proper management of these unfortunate members of the body that make such "pitiful figures before the audience." Can any of your readers inform me of one,—I am, Sir, yours obediently,

A PRIVATE TEACHER.

Notices of Books.

Méthode pour déchiffrer et transcrire les noms Sanscrits qui se rencontrent, dans les livres Chinois, &c., inventée et démontrée par M. Stanislas Julien, membre de l'Institut, &c. Paris: A. Durand. One vol. 8vo.

Persons acquainted with the history of eastern civilisation are aware that the religious reform, brought about by the Buddha Cakyamouni, was in course of time introduced into China, where it obtained the greatest popularity, and soon counterbalanced the teaching of Confucius. By a singular modification of the plan usually adopted in such cases, the inhabitants of the Celestial Empire were not satisfied with waiting until Hindu missionaries should bring to them the doctrines of the new faith, and invite them to embrace the *Nirvana* (theory of annihilation), and all its consequences. Carried away by their zeal, they started in quest of religious teachers, and took the first steps in the path of proselytism. The results of this extraordinary movement have, fortunately, been handed down to us; and the admirable works entitled *Histoire de la vie de Hiomen-tchang*, and *Mémoires sur les contrées occidentales*, contain the full accounts of one of the most important intellectual revolutions which the history of mankind offers to our study.

Our reason, however, for adverting now to the connection between the Chinese and the Hindus is founded upon a fact, not of religious, but of philological value, and this we shall endeavour to explain as clearly as we can. When, in 1836, the late Abel Rémusat published his translation of the *Fo-kou-ki* (*Mémoire sur les royaumes Bouddhiques*), it was noticed that Chinese books referring to India and to Buddhism contained in every page a multitude of Sanscrit words, represented by Chinese phonetic characters, which no one could decipher, and which were either left untranslated or disfigured through the fruitless efforts made to reduce them, in a conjectural manner, to their probable original form. Thus, under the Chinese substantives, *Ho-kia-lo*, *Po-t'o*, and *Po-tso-fou-lo*, no one could recognise the respective Sanscrit equivalents, *Vyākaraṇas*, *Avadānas*, and *Vāṭīputrīyās*; Abel Rémusat failed to interpret

them, because, although a first-rate Sinologist, he did not know Sanscrit, whilst Eugène Burnous failed likewise, because, although a first-rate Sanscrit scholar, he knew nothing of Chinese. But even a profound acquaintance with the two languages was insufficient, and when M. de Chézy, at the request of Abel Rémusat, endeavoured to ascertain the meaning and orthography of a few words which the latter *savant* had met with in a Chinese dictionary, he signally blundered. For it is not enough to have a complete list of the alphabetic characters which constitute the Chinese language; we must know *all* their acceptations, and these various acceptations must be corroborated by a goodly array of Sanscrit quotations. Further, it is quite indispensable that we should be familiar with the rules which determine the transcription of signs from the one language into the other; without such rules our efforts can obviously be nothing but guess work.

The difficulties to be surmounted were, it will be seen, of the most serious nature, and therefore M. Stanislas Julien is entitled to the greatest praise for having at last successfully overcome them.

The volume we are now noticing is divided into four sections or parts, respecting each of which we shall say a few words. The author begins by giving an account of the task he has undertaken, and of the efforts made by his predecessors. It would be impossible to imagine anything more interesting than the simple, straightforward narrative M. Stanislas Julien sets before us of his labours and their results. Not only have we here a genuine specimen of the *labor improbus*, at the mere conception of which so many would-be students recoil, but also we find a number of interesting particulars on the character and formation of the Chinese language. Very luckily, M. Julien had at his disposal a number of glossaries and other works not accessible to either Abel Rémusat or de Chézy; in these books the Hindu words are represented by conventional signs, and followed by Chinese interpretations; the interpretations in their turn can recall the Sanscrit equivalents, and suggest their original form concealed under signs of a purely phonetic nature. Now if each sound was represented by one character, and no more, the task

would be a comparatively easy one; but let us listen to what M. Stanislas Julien has to say on the subject:—

"The Chinese language, whose classical dictionary contains forty-two thousand words, possesses only about four hundred principal sounds, not reckoning the four accents which multiply four-fold the number, or rather the shades (*nuances*) of these sounds. Unfortunately, as at the epoch when the first translations were made from Sanscrit into Chinese, no one had compiled an harmonic alphabet, which all interpreters might use in following ages, the result was, that owing to the enormous quantity of homophonous characters, every translator employed, according to his fancy, a different sign for the purpose of expressing the same Hindu word; and thus we frequently find various authors making use of ten or even twenty separate characters, when one would have been sufficient. It is owing to such an inconvenient abundance of signs that my phonetic dictionary, which is far from being complete, contains already more than twelve hundred different characters to render the forty-two letters of the Sanscrit alphabet, including the diphthongs, and the combinations of the consonants, with all the words.

"Some oriental scholars have imagined that the Chinese sounds, stripped of their graphic representations, and compared with Arabic or Persian sounds, might enable a person, ignorant both of Sanscrit and of Chinese, to spell Hindu words correctly. In order to dispel this illusion, it will be sufficient to say that a great number of Chinese phonetic signs by no means correspond to the Hindu articulations they are intended to represent. For instance, the Sanscrit syllable *ga* is figured in Chinese by three signs, which are sounded *wo*, whilst seven characters of the same sound stand for the Sanscrit *a*. This is not all; the same (Sanskrit) vowel *a* is figured by three Chinese characters sounding *an*, and also by *ho* and by *ko*. Let us also notice the Sanscrit *gou*, represented in Chinese by four letters having the sound *kiu*, likewise by *k'iou*, *kie*, and *ki*.

"The signs which illustrate most clearly the error I am now alluding to, are the figures of the cerebral letters *da*, *dhe*, *ta*, *tha*, *ti*, differing entirely from the Hindu sound they are intended to represent. Who could possibly discover the Sanscrit *da* in the Chinese equivalents *tehka*, *trie*, *tee*, *chi*, *ta*, and *tekke*? Who could imagine that the sound *ti* corresponds to the seven signs pronounced *teh*, *to*, *tehou*, *tee*, &c., &c.?" What shall we say of the Chinese sound *che*, which we find in Sanscrit corresponding to sounds so different from one another as *gya*, *ph*, *ga*, *gi*, *chya*, *gva*, and *dja*?"

The remarks we have just made, and the lucid explanations given by M. Stanislas Julien, will, we trust, give our readers a correct idea both of the importance of the *Méthode pour déchiffrer*, and of the amount of patience, learning, and ingenuity which the preparation of such a work required. The books consulted

by the author are minutely described, and a series of examples are added, illustrating the concordance between the Chinese and Sanscrit alphabets.

In the second part, entitled *regles de la transcription*, we have some easy and lucid rules which will remove every difficulty from the way of students; the third section contains a copious selection of exercises for the application of these rules; the fourth consists of the phonetic dictionary itself. All the sounds are numbered in order to facilitate reference, and they are arranged according to the 214 keys with which Sinologists are familiar.

M. Stanislas Julien's *Méthode*, handsomely printed at the Paris Imperial Press, is dedicated to Dr Max Muller of Oxford. Testimonials from Professors Benfey, Goldstücker, H. Wilson, and others, cited in the preface, bear ample evidence to the merits of the author's system of transcription; and we are happy to recommend, in our turn, a work so well designed for the benefit of Sanscrit philologists.

Grammatische Hülfsblätter der Deutschen Sprache, enthaltend die wichtigsten Formen, Lehren und Regeln nebst erläuternden Beispielen und Fragen zur Beschäftigung in Schule und Haus. Tabular views of the German Grammar, containing the most important Forms, Lessons, and Rules, with Explanatory Examples and Questions for School and Private Study. By J. T. Lotze, German Master in the Scottish Institution for the Education of Young Ladies, Edinburgh. Edinburgh: Seton & Mackenzie, London: Whittaker & Co. 1865.

This work is not intended to supersede the Grammar, but to be used with it. Each table contains a bird's-eye view of all that it is necessary to know in regard to one part of speech. The tables are drawn up with great care. Points especially worthy of observation are printed in red. The author has shown 'considerable' ingenuity in forming his tables, and has succeeded in making a valuable book. We should be inclined to substitute it for a grammar. Eye and ear are practised by it; and a learner can see at a glance all the various inflexions, and can learn the reason of the differences.

Bibliotheca Sacra Parvulorum. Sacra Academia. A Collection of Latin Prayers, now or lately used in certain Colleges and Schools in England. London: Rivington's. 1865.

The editor of these Latin Prayers has, it seems to us, hit on a happy idea. He has collected in his "little volume, a few perishing remains of Post-Reformation Latin Offices." They will be found exceedingly interesting to all who take an interest in the history of education, and to many they will be attractive from the associations connected with them. The editor has a well written introduction, in which,

in harmony with an article which appeared in the *Museum* of last month, he deprecates the rapid hurrying of the pupil through some half-dozen languages at once, and he further remarks, "We shall probably have to go back to a more common and familiar use of the Latin language in our colleges and schools." The editor has discharged his duty with loving conscientiousness. He intends to publish several other collections of a similar nature in his *Bibliotheca*, such as the Communion Service and Collects of the Prayer Book in Latin; select passages from Ven. Bede; select hymns of Prudentius; a collection of Latin graces of colleges and schools. We trust the editor will find ample support in his interesting undertaking.

New Grammar of French Grammars, comprising the substance of all the most approved French Grammars extant, but more especially of the Standard Work, "Grammaire des Grammaires." Sanctioned by the French Academy and the University of Paris. With numerous exercises and examples, illustrative of every rule. By Dr V. DE FIVAS, M.A. London. 25th edition. 1865.

A book that has reached a twenty-fifth edition, has nearly, if not entirely, passed beyond criticism. Dr De Fivas' work has deserved success, and though now a considerable time in the field, will maintain a good position among contending rivals.

An Enlarged and Illustrated Edition of Dr Webster's Complete Dictionary of the English Language. Thoroughly revised and improved. By CHAUNCEY A. GOODRICH, D.D., LL.D., late Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory, and also Professor of the Pastoral Charge in Yale College; and NOAH PORTER, D.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics in Yale College. London: Published for the Proprietors by Bell & Daldy, 186 Fleet Street.

Dr Webster's Dictionary is already well known. The present edition contains some peculiar features, which give it greater value. The etymology, which is often very defective in Dr Webster's work, has been revised by Dr Mahn of Berlin. Illustrations are given of those natural and artificial objects which admit of being presented to the eye. At the same time, several of the defects which characterise the early work are found in this. Dr Webster arbitrarily destroyed the arbitrariness of spelling, and accordingly no such word as *ardour* is to be found in this Dictionary. Again, the Dictionary is defective in its appeals to authorities. In fact, it supplies the student with no means of tracing the history of a word, and the authorities which are adduced seem to have been pitched upon by accident. It also omits words such as *astir*. Notwithstanding these defects, however, it is a remarkably good dictionary, and can be recommended

strongly to those who wish a very copious work at a comparatively cheap price. It is to be published in twelve parts at 2s. 6d. each.

Johnson's Dictionary. By Dr R. G. LATHAM. Part VII. London: Longman & Co. 1865.

The present part consists almost entirely of words introduced by the prefix *com* or *con*. As these words are, in the main, of classical origin, there is not much room for etymological emendation, and there is, therefore, little occasion for that philological research which is the chief means whereby Dr Latham attempts to throw new light upon the English language. In other respects, the work continues to fulfil the promise of the editor's prospectus. Illustrations from modern authors are freely introduced, especially in connection with words, the meanings of which have been modified to suit the requirements of science. Examples of this will be found under such words as *conceptive*, *conditioned*, *connate*, *connotation*, *consciousness*, *contrary*, *converse*, &c.; while others, as *concept*, *conceptualism*, &c., are new in this edition of Johnson. In the absence of strictly philological questions, the editor's notes relate chiefly to points of accent, orthography, and orthoepy. Several of these are very valuable, but we miss, in most of them, that clearness and conciseness of statement which are so necessary in a work of reference. These notes are generally too long and diffuse, very frequently (as in those on the sound of *gl*, on *co* and *con*, and on *can*) leaving the questions, after two or three columns of discursive talk, very much where they found them. Their chief value lies in their suggestiveness, arising from the fulness with which they state the various opinions entertained on the subjects discussed. If they do not give us an exact and tangible statement of the editor's opinion, they, at least, give us abundant material for forming an opinion of our own. We select, as in former notices, the following points of detail from our marginal notes:—

Come up to. Latham follows Todd in giving the meaning, "rise; advance." Todd has, "to rise; to advance." But these two meanings are neither equivalents of each other, nor of the expression they are intended to explain. On turning to an older edition of Johnson (the sixth, 1795), we find the two verbs printed as *one* explanation, without the semi-colon, or any point, between them, thus, "to rise to advance," whatever that may be intended to signify. The insertion of the semi-colon has either been a fancied correction (in which case it is a failure), or a mistake. Either way, it has been adopted by Dr Latham. We don't think the original reading, if it was intended to stand so, is more satisfactory than the modern ones. The true meaning of the phrase is simply, *to equal, to be on a par with*.

Common. In *grammar*, applied (b) to nouns.

On this we have one of Dr Latham's most suggestive, but most inconclusive, notes. This use of the adjective must be explained by a reference to its original meaning, which is "belonging equally to more than one." As applied to gender, it must therefore mean, "belonging equally to" the masculine and the feminine. In this sense, a substantive can only be of the *common* gender when it embraces individuals of *both* genders: thus, "crowd," "populace," "congregation," each regarded not as a single object, but as an aggregation of men and women, are *common*; thus, also, such plurals as "parents," "citizens," "subscribers," "adherents," "enemies," "friends," "we," "ye," "they," are of the *common* gender. But it is wrong to regard the singulars of these words as *common*. To designate them accurately, we must employ *either*, as the converse of *neither*, or *neither*. Thus, in "I got it from a friend," *friend* is *either* gender, masculine or feminine as the case may be; but it cannot in the nature of things be *common*; it cannot "belong equally" to both. In "he is my friend," *friend* is masculine gender, its gender being determined by *he*.

Comparable. Accent given on first syllable. But it should have been observed that, when used in grammar, the accent is on the second syllable. This adjective is *comparable*, i. e. admits of being compared. *Incomparable* and *incomparable* must be similarly distinguished.

Compt. "Account; computative; reckoning." The meaning rather is, "the state of being reckoned up," hence *readiness*. So in *Macbeth*—

"Your servants ever

Have theirs, themselves, and what is theirs, in *compt*
To make their audit at your highness' pleasure."

Conation, s. and Conative, adj. Both words are omitted, though their root *conatus* is given. This is strange, as the readers of Sir W. Hamilton's Lectures (which Dr Latham frequently quotes) must be familiar with the terms. We add the authorities:

"The phenomena of our *conative* powers,—in other words, the phenomenon of Will and Desire."—Sir W. Hamilton's Lectures, vol. i. 122.

"Gottlob Schulze, though a decided antagonist of the Kantian philosophy in general, adopts the three-fold classification into the Cognitions, the Feelings, and the *Conations*."—*Ibid.* ii. 429.

Oudworth, Dr Latham might have learnt from a note in Hamilton, i. 186, uses *conative* as a noun:—

"Notwithstanding which, the hegemonic of the soul may, by *conatives* and endeavours, acquire more and more power over them."—Oudworth's *Treatise on Free Will*, p. 31.

Condemn, and Condign. Dr Latham has adopted no means of indicating the silent *n* and *g* in these words respectively. He might also have been expected to remark upon the effect of the elision of the *n* in lengthening the *i*.

Condescendence. Its use as a legal term, especially in Scotland, not adverted to, though we have legal explanations of *commendam*, *common*, &c. &c.

Conglaciante forms a peg for one of the editor's confused and confusing notes. He might have said in a paragraph what he spins out to a column. He had previously said (sub. *co-z*) that *n* before *g* guttural, as in *gun*, is sounded *ng*, e. g. *Congress*, pronounced *kong-gress*. But the *n* in the combination *ngl* is sounded as *n*, not as *ng*. Dr Latham says this is not an exception to the rule, because the sound of *g* in *gl* is not the sound of *g* in *gun*. What, then, is the sound of *gl*? Webster says it is the same as *dl*; that when we think we say *glory*, we really say *dory*. Both Max Müller and Latham regard this fancy with too much favour. The fact is, that *gl* is sometimes improperly pronounced *dl*, by people afflicted with thickness of speech. It is, therefore, an error, and cannot be taken as a rule. Many persons, whose muscles are sluggish, vulgarly pronounce *three* as if it were *chree*. Indeed, the sounds of *thr* and *chr* are as similar as those of *gl* and *dl*; and it is to be observed that in both cases a *guttural* is confounded with a *dental* before a *liquid*. But no one would think of making the similarity of the two sounds, which causes them to be confounded, a ground for affirming their identity. The true explanation of the case in point seems to be, that the liquid so checks or modifies the sound of the guttural as to make preceding *ng* sound unnecessary.

Connascence leads to another long note, the subject of which in the first place, is the sound of the double *n*, *con-n*. Dr Latham says that though two *n*'s are written, only one is sounded. With this we can hardly agree. Over and above the effect of the double *n* in keeping the *o* short, it seems to us that the two *n*'s get a distinct value. The voice dwells upon them longer than it would on one merely. Compare, for example, *conation* with *conative*. In the latter word, though there are not two separate *n* sounds, there is a lengthening of the one *n* sound. The tip of the tongue rests longer, or should rest longer, at the roof of the mouth in pronouncing it, than in the case of the single *n*. We may notice the same difference in the case of the *l* sounds in *holy* and in *wholly*. Yet Dr Latham holds them to be identical.

The New Sunday-School Hymn-Book. Edited by EDWIN HODDER. London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder.

The New Sunday-School Tune-Book. Edited by the author of "Sacred Harmonies." London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder.

Mr Hodder thus states the object of his new hymn-book:—

"The object of the editor has been—to select hymns which may be sung with truth and propriety

by children, and to reject those which are too often in use in schools, and express sentiments only realised by mature Christians;—to introduce those hymns which impart instruction in the manner employed by the Divine Teacher, by making the associations of daily life and the wonders and beauties of nature point to Him who is 'God over all, blessed for evermore.'

"Another specific object in the present work is to supply a considerable number of *new* hymns; for, however highly and deservedly the old favourites are admired, it is a common want expressed by Sunday-school teachers that the children should have new hymns. Apart from the fact that the old ones are all committed to memory, and in many of the hymn-books now in circulation, there are no fresh ones for the children to learn, there is a great fear that being so familiar with the words of the hymns sung, the lessons which they are intended to convey do not come with such freshness and power as they would by the same lessons being taught in a less familiar form—just as a sermon or a spoken prayer loses its force in proportion as it retains only one mode of expression."

We give Mr Hodder's reasons for publishing his new hymn-book, and they may be satisfactory to many, but they are certainly not satisfactory to us. We suspect that it is the teachers that are tired of hearing the same hymns, not the children. Many of the common Sunday-school hymns are exquisitely beautiful, and can never fail to have a beneficial effect. If they are linked with one tune, and with that alone, they will become favourites for life; and even if they are not first-rate in point of poetic merit, somehow they get deep down into the heart, and remain with us for ever. Hymns producing such an effect cannot become stale to Sunday-school scholars, who attend the school only for eight or nine years at the utmost, and generally for a much shorter period. At the same time, we have no objection to new hymns being made. The Sunday-school teacher will examine these, and by and by some of them may become as great favourites as the old. Some of the new hymns in this book are remarkably good, especially those by Mr Hodder himself. The parables and miracles of Christ form admirable subjects for descriptive and practical hymns, and they have been by no means exhausted, as this little book shews.

Mr Hodder has admitted into his collection some hymns which seem to us needless imitations of well known favourites. For instance, instead of "Round the Throne of God in Heaven," we have, "Before the Glorious Throne Above;" there are two of his hymns mere paraphrases of the beautiful hymn "Morn amid the Mountains," and there is another a weak imitation of "I think when I read that sweet story of old." There are some of the hymns, too, which smack of the controversies of the age.

Thus there is one, "We won't give up the Bible," and another, "We love the good old Bible," which contain ideas which should be foreign to a child. The child should never dream of giving up the Bible, and he should have no feeling in regard to it which might lead him to call it the "old Bible." Another hymn makes the child sing, "I want to be an Angel;" a wish as impossible of realisation as the more common wish to be a butterfly or a daisy.

The New Sunday-School Tune-Book is intended to supply tunes for the peculiar metres of the New Sunday-School Hymn-Book, and to be a general tune-book for Sunday school and home purposes. The same objections can be urged against it as have been made to the hymn-book. It attempts to displace many tunes which are established favourites, for no good reason, as far as we can see. It also occasionally endeavours to unfix the associations which are produced by linking one set of words unalterably to one tune. We regard this as an important matter. If words are sung to only one tune, the words and the tune are ineluctably welded together in the memory and the heart. If the words are sung to more than one tune, then there is no special musical association. In this tune-book, the words "Before the glorious throne above" takes the tune of "Around the throne of God in heaven." There is a new air to "There is a Land of Pure Delight." At the same time, we heartily acknowledge that there are many fine airs, remarkable for their simplicity, devout feeling, and appropriateness in the new tune-book.

The Irrationale of Speech. By a MINUTE PHILOSOPHER. Reprinted from "Fraser's Magazine" for July 1859. London: Longman, Green, Longman, & Roberts. 1864.

The Minute Philosopher is C. K., who is Charles Kingsley, or some one of exactly the same sentiments and style. The purpose of the reprint of the article we guess to be, to recommend Mr Hunt as the only one whom C. K. knows to be able to cure stammering. Mr Hunt is evidently worthy of the praise bestowed on him, and his investigations deserve the attention of all who have to speak in public. We suspect that there are in the country a few others, as for instance, Mr Melville Bell, who have devoted their lives to investigations into the organs of speech, that can cure stammering as well as Mr Hunt, but this does not lessen his merits.

A School Geography. By JAMES CORNWELL, Ph. D., F.R.G.S. Thirty-sixth Edition. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1865.

This is one of the best school geographies in use. Dr Cornwell has introduced the latest discoveries and results of travel into his work.

Notes and Queries.

[Correspondents will please quote distinctly both the Department (Phil. or Math.), and the Number, of he Queries to which they reply. Their answers, also, should be brief and to the point.]

I. PHILOLOGICAL AND CRITICAL.

NOTES.

30. Paraphrase.—"This is the well-remembered spot; and the curlews, as they were wont to do in bye-gone days, fill the air around with their notes; while the sun casts pale and cheerless rays across the andy waste, which seem to rest awhile, and then pass over Locksley Hall."

Analysis—

Sentence.	Kind.		Subject.	Predicate.	Comple- tion.	Extensions.
<i>a.</i> 'Tis the place,	Prin. s. co- ord. with <i>b.</i> Cop. rel.		'T= <i>it</i> Pers. pron.	<i>is the place</i> Verb "to be," and a noun.	...	
<i>b.</i> And all around it, the cur- lews call, dreary mists about the moorland flying over Locksley Hall.	Prin. sent. co-ord. with <i>a.</i> Cop. rel.	and	the <i>curlews</i> Noun.	<i>call</i> Verb, simple.	...	1. <i>All around it.</i> Prep. ph. of place. 2. <i>Dreary mists about the moorland, &c.</i> Phrase of accom. cir- cumstances.
<i>c.</i> As (they called) of old.	Adverb s. of man. Sub. to pred. of <i>b.</i> contracted.	as	(<i>they</i>) Pron. supp.	(<i>called</i>) Verb, simple supp.	...	<i>Of old.</i> Prep. ph. of time.

F. H.

31.

1. Pray Reg. trans. verb, act. voice, indic. mood, pres. indef. tense, 1st pers. sing. agreeing with its nom. "I" unders. and gov. "you" unders. in the obj. case, and "to tell" in the infin. mood. (I pray you to tell me, &c.)
- something Com. noun, 3d pers. sing., neut., obj. case, gov. by infin. "to tell."
- more. Adverb of quan., compar. deg., mod. verb "to tell."

Note.—Every comparative should be followed by the thing compared, introduced by the word "than." The ellipsis supplied would render the sentence thus:—"I pray you to tell me something more than I know of the mysteries of grammar."

2. Before Prep. gov. "going."
- going Part noun, 3d pers. sing., neut., obj. case gov. by prep. "before."
- home, Com. noun, 3d pers. sing., neut., obj. case, gov. by "to" unders. (To sing home.)
- however. Disjunc. advers. conjunction, connecting the phrase, "Before going home." with the sentence, "I went to a workman."
3. Such Pronoun, indef. adjective, qual. "men."
- as Cop. contin. conjunction, connecting the sentence, "Such men shall be

punished," with the sentence "those are," unders. (Such men as (those are who) encourage evil-doers shall be punished.)

F. H.

1. Pray A verb, regular, active transitive, indicative mood, present tense, first person singular, agreeing with its nominative I (understood), and governing thee (understood).
- something A compound noun, neuter, singular, objective, governed by *tell*.
- more. An adjective, comparative degree, qualifying the noun something.
2. Before A preposition placed before going.
- going A verb irregular, neuter intransitive, present participle used as a noun, neuter, singular, the objective governed by before.
- home A common noun, neuter, singular, objective governed by the preposition *to* understood.
- however. An adverb modifying the verb went.
3. Such An adjective pronoun of the indefinite class qualifying men.
- as As equal to that, a relative pronoun, having for its antecedent men, masculine, plural, nominative to the verb encourage.

G. D. (Lassodie).

1. "Pray, tell me something of the mysteries of grammar, more *than I yet know*."

Pray—an elliptical expression in which the subject is omitted. Compare *prithes* = "I pray thee." So also, "Thank you," &c.

Something—object to tell.

More—object to tell, in apposition to *something*.

2. *Before*—prep. gov. noun *going*. Even in introducing sentences *before* retains its prepositional power; hence in old English *that* frequently follows it, e.g. "I left *before that* [he came]."—Adams' *Eng. Lang.*

Going—abstract noun (the *gerund* of some grammars), objective case, governed by *before*. In a phrase like the following, "After *having been writing* all morning," Mason considers the words italicised, as a *compound gerund*.

Home—objective, gov. by *to*, understood.

However—a demonstrative adverb "indicating a

circumstance under which the predicate is asserted of the subject."—Mason.

Such—an indefinite adjective, defining *men*.

As—a correlative pronominal adjective, subject of *encourage*. QUENTIN.

33. It is difficult to see what object would be gained by analysing a phrase already tautological. There is nothing in the words, "will live to be," which is not expressed by the simpler form "will be." Hence it would appear that "to be" is more inseparably connected with "will live" than with "admiration,"—though the phrase "to be the admiration" may be considered as the complement of "will live." But, however read, the words "abilities" and "admiration" are respectively the nominatives *before* and *after* the verb.

Has this sentence been coined to illustrate a difficulty? It should be remembered that it is quite a mistake to push grammatical analysis to an extreme limit. QUENTIN.

Education at Home.

THE QUEEN AND THE SCHOOL FRIGATE "CONWAY."

—The committee of the school frigate "Conway," now anchored in the Mersey, have just received a letter from Colonel Phipps to the effect that Her Majesty has desired him to intimate her appreciation of the success of the institution, and also her desire to place at the disposal of the committee the annual sum of £50, to be accorded as prizes to the boys educated at this establishment. Her Majesty's desire is stated by Colonel Phipps to be "to assist in encouraging those principles which may best qualify the boys of this school to become hereafter officers of the Royal Naval Reserve, and thus attach themselves to Her Majesty's service, and to facilitate the entry into the Royal Navy of boys who shall be fortunate enough in honourable competition to obtain the cadetships offered to them by the Board of Admiralty." This act of the Queen has given great satisfaction to the mercantile marine service of Liverpool, and will, no doubt, exercise a beneficial influence upon the character and conduct of our future merchants.

THE PRINCE CONSORT'S PRIZE. — His Royal Highness, the late President of the Society, was pleased to offer annually to the candidate who, obtaining a certificate of the 1st class in the current year, shall have obtained in that year, and the three years immediately preceding it, the greatest number of such certificates, a prize of 25 guineas. Her Majesty the Queen has graciously intimated her intention to continue this prize. It will be accompanied by a

certificate from the Society of Arts, setting forth the special character of the prize, and the various certificates for which it was granted. This prize cannot be taken more than once by the same candidate.

METROPOLITAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS.—The second annual meeting was held yesterday afternoon, at the house of the Society of Arts, John Street, Adelphi. The Right Hon. the Earl Granville, K.G., President of the Association, occupied the chair, and was accompanied by Sir T. Philips, Mr W. Cotton, the Rev. Mr White (Secretary), Archdeacon Utterson, Mr F. S. Powell, Mr B. Shaw.

Earl Granville said—It was soon after the Great Exhibition of 1851 that a step was taken by the Society of Arts in forming associations of institutes throughout the country, and, when formed, to obtain for them the legislative powers by which property was protected. It then became desirable to enlarge and liberalise those institutions, and make them more active, more agreeable, and more instructive to those who fell within their precincts. In order to give full effect to those institutions, it was almost necessary to establish some examination. In order to gain a system of the kind, in order to keep the master up to the mark, and in order to keep the pupils constantly before them, it was absolutely necessary that at stated periods there should be some real test and examination applied. This particular branch was established because it was found that, great as this metropolis

was, thickly populated as this district was, and great as was the amount of activity that prevailed amongst all classes, yet the attendance at these local examinations was much less numerous than in other parts of the kingdom. The numbers that presented themselves were at first very small indeed. The report had laid down very clearly the objects the Society had in view. The first object appeared to be to give an opportunity to those who were chiefly engaged in labour to redeem time misspent, or to continue the advantages of education, which they had only been able to receive up to a limited period of their lives. He remembered that the late Prince Consort, under whose auspices the plan of that institution was constituted, when he used the words "knowledge is power," always added, "and enjoyment too." They had had the opportunity of observing his late Royal Highness for many years, and it was quite remarkable to see what knowledge he possessed of almost every science, and how he increased his enjoyment of everything that related to the fine arts, as well as to more practical pursuits. With regard to enjoyment, he remembered a great friend of his (Earl Granville's)—one of the best informed, and most exactly informed, men in the House of Commons—telling him that his great love for reading, and his great pursuit of reading, had its origin in his poverty. He found reading so much cheaper than other amusements that he was driven into it. This instance, he thought, was a fair reply to those who said, "Give a man a little enjoyment after a day of toil." The report alluded to the progress that had been made. The metropolitan district contained three millions of inhabitants, so that when they took the five hundred members of that institution, and divided them by two, for those who successfully passed, they must see that a very small fraction of persons would be affected by it. But taking into consideration other circumstances, taking into consideration the large number of persons who were necessarily excluded from those examinations, taking away nearly one-half of those who belonged to that sex, of whom he was happy to see so many there present, and taking into consideration also the very natural reluctance of older men to subject themselves to attending these examinations in competition with younger persons, and they would not find the state of things nearly so discouraging as it appeared to be. He did not, at any rate, wish to discourage the older persons from devoting a great deal of time even to the elementary portions of education. As to female education he could not but express his great pleasure at this portion of what the association had done. This was a most difficult subject, and it ought to be most carefully considered and delicately handled. It was highly encouraging that the Princess of Wales had followed the example set to her by her illustrious mother and father-in-law, and ought to stimulate the association in endeavouring

to encourage young persons of that sex to come forward. The report made a touching appeal for so young a society and so useful an institution. That they were tending to stimulate education—that they were trying to urge young men to improve their prospects in this life, and, as he firmly believed, to fit them for another world—would be admitted; and these were matters of the greatest moment. With regard to Government, they could do a great deal. The principle of giving clerkships by examination certainly did exercise a valuable influence. In his department two candidates from that institution had been successful in those examinations. In another department there were no less than nine, and all those persons were doing well, and some excellently well. Some difficulty had been raised against the system of Government competition; but he could vouch that there was no comparison between the competitive and probationary systems.

Archdeacon Utterton moved, and Sir T. Philips seconded, the publication of the report.

Officers for the ensuing year were elected; and a vote of thanks to the chairman brought the proceedings to a close.

SUPPLEMENTAL REGULATIONS TO THE REVISED CODE.—*"Education Department.*—REV. SIR,—I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 9th instant. No attendance at a meeting, morning or afternoon, of the school, can be reckoned for any scholar who has been under instruction less than two hours (Art. 41, R. C.). It is obvious that unless additional time is allowed to mark the school registers, this rule cannot be observed. The names of any scholars who leave before the period of two hours' instruction has been completed, must of course be struck off from the attendance register.—I have the honour to be, Rev. Sir, Your obed. Servant, F. R. SANDFORD."

The above letter was the result of the attention of the Committee of Council being called to the subject by a school manager. As most elementary schools begin at 2 and leave off at 4 in the afternoon, this commentary upon Supplementary Rule No. VII. might, from a teacher's inadvertence, prejudice the claims upon inspection of an elementary school. All right-minded schoolmasters and schoolmistresses will relieve, as far as they can, the pain red tape feels in straining at a gnat, by beginning school five minutes sooner or keeping it five minutes later for marking the registers. The roll call as the clock strikes in a good school, is, as a lesson in punctuality, instruction affecting conduct, even more important than the Council's three R's. Mr Lynx, the official solicitor, has found this out to be a mistake, however. We cannot read that scholars who attend less than two hours are to be marked absent, without a keen sense of the ludicrous.

EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES—SCHOLASTIC REGISTRATION ASSOCIATION.—The general committee appointed several months back, and whose names appeared in our Magazine of the period, has been reinforced with the names and services of the following gentlemen:—Rev. Thos. Jackson, M.A., Prebendary of St Paul's, formerly Principal of Battersea College; Rev. Alex. J. D. d'Orsey, B.D., Corpus Christi College, Cambridge and King's College, London; Wm. B. Beach, Esq., M.P.; J. Andrews, Esq., F.C.P., Brighton; L. Schmitz, Esq., Ph.D., L.L.D., Rector of the High School of Edinburgh. The committee is earnestly at work. There is almost a unanimity of opinion amongst teachers respecting the desirableness of a legislative enactment to distinguish qualified and unqualified educators, but the business of the committee is nevertheless very difficult. The feasibility of any plan has first to be investigated, and then a scheme has to be drawn up which must steer clear of a trespass upon the liberty of the subject, and at the same time must not offend the peculiar sensitiveness, not to say prejudices, of teachers themselves. Mr Barrow Rnls, of Aldershot, is the honorary secretary of the movement, from whom full information may be obtained, and by whom assistance of every kind would be welcomed.

THE CONSCIENCE CLAUSE.—At a recent meeting of the Worcester Archidiaconal Board of Education, Sir John Pakington brought forward a motion to the effect that the rules of the Board ought to be revised, so as to enable all church schools within the arch-deaconry, which are in need of assistance, to benefit by its grants, whether they have or have not accepted the "conscience clause." He supported this motion on the broad grounds of the necessity for education, which is felt equally by the poor and the rich, and by the claims of abstract justice and right, by which the conduct of every public man ought to be regulated. Besides these considerations, he gave two reasons justifying himself for his adhesion to the "conscience clause,"—first, that he was convinced that it was for the interests of the church to take a liberal and just course; and, secondly, speaking from his own experience, he decidedly affirmed that all efforts to extend the benefits of education were in vain, unless some means could be found to settle the religious question. A very animated discussion ensued, in which the resolution was supported by Archdeacon Sandford and several clergymen, but opposed by Lord Lyttelton, Lord Redesdale, the Hon. F. Lygon, and some others. It was eventually lost by a majority of forty-nine against sixteen in favour.

EDUCATION FOR THE MIDDLE CLASSES.—A contribution towards clearing up this great difficulty of the day, has been made by a body of the clergy and laity in the establishment of a county school for

Surrey. The object aimed at is to give a first-class education at a moderate cost, while yet free from any eleemosynary element. The first stone of the building was laid by the Archbishop of Canterbury in 1863, and there is every prospect of opening the school in August next.

The government is in the hands of a council constituted of twenty-four gentlemen of the county, of whom nearly two-thirds are laymen, and the Bishop of Winchester has accepted the office of visitor to the school.

The head master will be a clergyman and a graduate of one of the universities, and the religious instruction will be that of the Church of England. The course of education proposed to be given is that which is now known as the "Middle-Class Examination System."

The buildings stand on an elevated site of eight acres of ground, well adapted for the purpose, and near a railway station. They have been planned for the reception of 150 boarders, and admit of extension if required. It is not intended to limit the school to boys from the county of Surrey. The charge for boarders will be £30 a year, and the school, after the buildings have been provided, will be self-supporting.

To open the school free from debt, £10,000 are required, of which sum £6000 have been already subscribed, mainly in the rural districts of the county, and in the immediate neighbourhood of the school, through the exertions of the members of the council and other friends. The council are, however, of opinion that there are living in the suburban parts of this county, in London, and in other places, many persons interested in middle-class education who would willingly subscribe to the building of such an institution, and they therefore appeal to the public to aid in bringing the many eloquent speeches and various theories on the subject to the issue of a practical effort.

THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.—Since our last publication it is stated that this body has appointed five sub-commissioners, whose duty will be to visit different parts of the country and inquire into the means and state of education there. Three of the commissioners are—Mr Alexander Nicholson, advocate; Mr A. C. Sellar, advocate; and Mr Harvey, late of Merchiston Academy. The other two are reported to be Major Maxwell and a Mr Gregg. Rumour has it—and of course we give it only as a rumour—that in his evidence before the Commission, the leading functionary of the Committee of Council on Education expressed a decided opinion that the Revised Code was not necessary nor suitable for Scotland; and that, even although a national system could not be secured, a separate board of administration for Scotland would be indispensable.

EDUCATION IN PARLIAMENT.

COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.—*8th Feb.*—Sir J. Pakington gave notice that he would, on Tuesday, the 28th instant, move for the appointment of a select committee, to consider the constitution and procedure of the Committee of Council on Education.

EDUCATION GRANT.—Sir L. Palk gave notice that he would, on the 28th inst., move a resolution relative to small rural parishes and the education grant.

THE NATIONAL GALLERY AND THE ROYAL ACADEMY.—*9th Feb.*—Mr H. Seymour gave notice that on an early day he would ask the First Commissioner of Works whether he had taken any steps to carry into effect the resolution of the house last year with regard to the building of a National Gallery, and likewise what steps he proposed to take with regard to the Royal Academy in accordance with the report of the Royal Commission.

QUALIFICATION FOR OFFICES ABOLITION BILL.—*13th Feb.*—Mr Hadfield said this bill having been repeatedly discussed, he introduced it with a view to its being referred to a select committee, and on the understanding that that course was to be adopted, he moved that the bill be read a second time. Mr Newdegate did not propose to interfere with the understanding referred to by the hon. member for Sheffield, as existing in the house, but he thought it necessary, having six times opposed the passing of this bill, and as it passed the house by a majority of only two last session, to beg the house to allow him to state distinctly that his objection to the principle of the bill remained totally unabated. The hon. member was a very skilled and successful blockade-runner up to a certain point. He had six times induced that house by good management to allow the bill to go to the House of Lords, and six times it had been rejected by that house. In 1828, when the Test and Corporation Acts were passed, it was enacted that officers of the municipal corporations and high officers of state should make a declaration that they would use no power and influence, accruing to them by virtue of their office, for the purpose of attacking the Church of England, or dispossessing the bishops or clergy, or the church as a corporation, of the property or rights to which they were entitled by law. Nothing could be more reasonable than that declaration, because so long as the church continued united to the state it was but reasonable that the powers of the state should not be used to the detriment of the church or of the property and rights guaranteed to her by the state; but to this declaration the hon. member for Sheffield and those who went with him objected, on the part of certain persons who professed that they did not desire to attack the church in any way. It never seemed reasonable to the other house to relieve gentlemen of the necessity of making a declaration that they

would not do that which they professed they had no intention of doing. The hon. member for Sheffield had pointed out that although the great officers of state and many of the officials of the government were compelled by law to make this declaration, they did not make it, but were covered for the omission by the Indemnity Act. But what was the truth? The oaths taken by them on entering office were to the same purport as the declaration; and, therefore, if those officials did not make the declaration, the oaths which they had taken were sufficient, effecting the same purpose, and this was covered by the Indemnity Act. But in the case of officers of corporations no such oaths were taken to prevent a collision between the powers of the state and the rights of the church; and, therefore, Lord John Russell in 1828, with the concurrence of the late Sir R. Peel, retained this declaration, the substance of which was recognised by the act of 1829, for the relief of the Roman Catholic disabilities; again in the act touching Moravians and Quakers; again in the act by which Jewish members assumed their seats in that house. Therefore this was a fundamental compact, renewed up to a period within six years of the present time, and he pointed out these facts to shew that the house was about to delegate to a select committee the consideration of one of the gravest principles which could be brought under its cognisance, or to which its attention could be drawn. Having pointed these circumstances out as a reason for guarding himself from being supposed in any way to relax his objection or his opposition to the principle of the bill, he thanked the house for allowing him to make this statement. The bill was then read a second time, and ordered to be referred to a select committee.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—*New Rules and Regulations of the Chancellor's Court.*—The new rules for regulating the practice and forms of procedure of the Chancellor's Court of the University of Oxford, have received the approval of Chief Justice Erle, Mr Justice Willes, and Mr Justice Blackburn, and will come into operation on the 1st of March next. The rules are forty-one in number, and are accompanied by several schedules, shewing the forms and legal processes which are to be used in the court, together with the scale of fees.

The first eight rules relate to the issue and service of summonses against members of the university. When the defence is a tender, the defendant must pay into the hands of the registrar the amount alleged to have been tendered. No person shall be entitled to appear in any cause unless he be a proctor qualified according to the statutes of the University, or by leave of the judge, a barrister-at-law not so qualified. Then comes this important rule, that if, upon the hearing of any cause, or in the

course of any suit or proceeding, it shall appear to the judge that by reason of the limited machinery, or limited jurisdiction of the court, justice cannot be completely and effectually done between the parties without recourse being had to some other court of law or equity, the judge may, in his discretion, give leave to either party to take proceedings in some other court.

When any order for payment of money is made against any member of the university under the degree of B.A., and the money is not paid before the rising of the court, and when any judgment is entered against any such person, upon a memorandum or agreement, notice shall be forthwith sent to the head of his college or hall by the registrar, or in the case of executions by the mandatory. Rule 81 provides that, if any person shall have a claim against a member of the university, on whom, by reason of his withdrawing or remaining absent from the university, it shall be impossible to serve a summons, the claimant may apply to the court for sequestration; and upon making an affidavit, shewing the nature and amount of the debt, and how the same was contracted, that request had been made to the party charged with the payment thereof, and that he had withdrawn himself from the precincts of the university to avoid a summons being served upon him, it shall be lawful for the judge, if he shall think fit, to order a sequestration of the fruits and profits of any fellowship, scholarship, or other place of emolument within the university which he may possess.

The scale of fees is as follows:—For every summons 1s. in the pound, and an additional fee of 1s. where the claim exceeds 40s., for every judgment by consent 1s. in the pound, hearing fee 2s. in the pound, and an additional fee is payable for every new trial. For drawing up any judgment or order 5s., for issuing warrant against the person or goods, and for every order of sequestration 1s. 6d. in the pound. The mandatory's fee for keeping possession of goods till sale, including expenses of removal, storage of goods, and all other expenses, not exceeding seven days, 3s. per day, or such larger sum as may, on special grounds, be allowed by the judge, not exceeding 6d. in the pound on the value of the goods appraised over and above the stamp duty; and for sale of goods, including advertisements, catalogues, sale, and commission, and delivery of the goods, 1s. in the pound on the net produce of the sale.

The scale of proctor's costs is as follows:—Letter before suit, 8s.; instructions to sue or defend, 5s.; summons and particulars of demand, 10s.; attending court and conducting cause, where no counsel employed, if the claim does not exceed £20, 15s.; ditto if the claim exceeds £20, £1; attending court, &c., where defendant has given two clear days' notice that he does not intend to dispute the claim,

7s.; any other necessary attendance in court, 10s.; preparing statement of agreement, and any necessary attendance on the registrar, 8s.; necessary notice, including copies and service, 5s.; necessary affidavit, 5s.; attending taxing costs, 3s. The judge may in any case, allow such farther occasional costs as he may deem to have been fairly and properly incurred. The total costs recoverable shall not exceed £1, 10s. when the amount of the claim is not more than £10, nor £2 where it is above £10 but not more than £20, unless specially allowed by the judge.

7th Feb.—In Convocation, the Rev. John Griffiths, M.A., of Wadhar, Keeper of the Archives, was elected a member of the Hebdomadal Council in the room of the Rev. J. R. T. Eaton, of Merton.

Mr John Davies Davenport, B.A., and Mr Walter Horatio Pater, Probationary Fellows of Brasenose, have been admitted actual Fellows.

CAMBRIDGE.—*B.A. Commencement.*—At the Congregation held for the purpose, the great majority of the gentlemen whose names have been already printed in the Mathematical Tripos (Honour) List, proceeded to their B.A. degree. There were three exceptions only. The attendance in the Senate House was unprecedentedly large, and the presentation of the Senior Wrangler to the Vice-Chancellor was the signal for an ovation, which found its vent in such cheers as only now and again awake the echoes of the Senate House, albeit that undergraduate cheering is such as cannot be surpassed, and seldom equalled for heartiness and right goodwill when the call is, "Now, one more, and altogether!" These peculiar ovations always take place when a hard-working and laborious student, one who, without what may be called adventitious aid, in the shape of private "coaching," save that which is willingly accorded him by those who have already reached the goal to which he aspires, succeeds in carrying off the "blue riband" of the university; and the hearty goodwill evident in the cheering this morning proved that the undergraduates of all classes were no less slow to acknowledge or appreciate the merits of one who, comparatively "born in the purple," has struggled for and obtained the victory in the intellectual arena. Loud and long was the cheering, renewed again and again by his fellow-collegians in favour of him who has thus brought the laurel again to old Trinity, and taken up enthusiastically by all who do not sport the blue gown in the most generous spirit. The Hon. J. H. Strutt is the eldest son of Baron Rayleigh, of Terling Place, Essex. He was educated by private tuition, and since his residence in the University, has been reading with Mr Routh, of St Peter's College, who was himself senior wrangler in 1854, and upon whom, since the retirement of Mr Hopkins, the mantle of the "senior wrangler maker" appears to have fallen. Mr Routh has been the mentor of the senior wranglers for the past four

years. Mr Strutt had, too, the invaluable aid (as his college tutor) of the Rev. W. C. Mathison, M.A., late college preceptor to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. Mr Marshall, of St John's, the second wrangler, was educated at Merchant Taylors' School, and has been a pupil of Mr Parkinson (president of St John's) and Mr Routh. Mr Cumming, the seventh wrangler, is a son of Mr Cumming, of the Madingley-road, Cambridge, and nephew of the celebrated Dr Cumming.

There were no less than four past senior wranglers present in the gallery at the Senate House on Friday last, either officially or otherwise interested in the status of the various candidates for mathematical honours.

The Rev. G. Hale, tenth wrangler 1863, has been elected Tayler Mathematical Lecturer at Sidney, Sussex.

The Rev. J. R. Cornish, M.A., fourteenth wrangler 1859, has been elected Blundell Fellow of Sidney.

LONDON.—*Matriculation 1865.*—Of the candidates for matriculation this year, no less than 143 have passed successfully, of whom only 26 are in the second division, while 117 are in the first division. The names of 88 candidates appear in Honours, 12 of whom are placed for Scholarships and Prizes.

The examination for the Degree of Master in Surgery is fixed for Monday, 6th March.

The next examination for Direct Commissions is appointed to take place on the 8th May.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.—At a meeting of the Edinburgh University Court, held on the 8th ult., Principal Sir David Brewster in the chair, William Seller, M.D., F.R.C.P.E., and F.R.S.E., was elected one of the Examiners in Medicine to the University, in the room of James Begbie, M.D., F.R.C.P., resigned.

APPOINTMENTS.

The Mathematical Mastership of the Royal Grammar School, Lancaster, has been conferred upon the Rev. Samuel Francis Cresswell, M.A., of St John's College, Cambridge, late mathematical master of the Cathedral School, Durham. Mr Cresswell graduated in 1859, when he was the fourteenth senior optime in the mathematical tripos.

Mr Gerard W. Tomkins, B.A., Jesus College, has been appointed to the Assistant Mastership of Epsom College.

Rev. H. G. Evans, M.A., has been appointed to the Second Mastership of Credin School, Devon.

Mr J. Blanch, B.A., St John's College, Cambridge, ninth wrangler of this year, has been appointed to the vacant Mathematical Mastership of Lancing College.

Rev. Philip de Quetteville, M.A., Emmanuel College, Cambridge, has accepted the Assistant Mastership in the same college.

Education Abroad.

FRANCE.—*Elementary Schools.*—The following historical sketch is an abridgment of two recent articles in the *Allgemeine Schul-Zeitung*:—

Before the revolution of 1789, France was more amply supplied with schools of the higher learning than, taking the increase of population into account, she is now. Towns, now the seat of only a single faculty, then possessed fully equipped universities. Kings, princes, prelates, and other grandees, lay and clerical, had for centuries been vying with one another in the foundation of learned institutions which the revolution swept away, and which subsequent arrangements have not replaced by a full equivalent.

Elementary instruction, on the other hand, scarcely existed in landward parishes before 1789. Reading and writing were not felt to be indispensable dexterities when the rosary held the place of pious manuals, and notaries swarmed on every side ready to transact, for a small fee, what little business might require the pen. Besides, the teachers who offered their services were of the most inefficient descrip-

tion, starving ecclesiastics, discharged soldiers, or broken-down scribes.

In 1791, Talleyrand, still bishop of Autun, laid before the National Assembly, as convener of its education committee, a school-bill endowing France with a complete system of elementary instruction, not very different from that which M. Guizot brought into operation, though not in its entirety, forty years afterwards. Talleyrand proposed that every parish should have its own suitably paid teacher, that boys and girls should be taught separately, and not only that no school-pence should be exacted from the very poor, but that even school materials should be furnished to them gratuitously. The funds were to be taken out of the secularised ecclesiastical property.

The Convention, in its turn, passed a school-bill of which the two most remarkable features were these:—The rights of man were substituted for the articles of religion, in the programme of lessons, and attendance at school was made a legal obligation.

But the Convention's school-bill also remained a dead letter.

When Napoleon took the helm of affairs, he found the re-organisation of the higher learning well advanced; and the properly *learned* schools of France still retain, with little modification, the form they at length received under his administration. But all action in regard to elementary schools was left to the several parishes; and, accordingly, schools were established only in the more wealthy and enlightened. The annual subsidy to elementary schools, under Napoleon, never exceeded £250.

Under the Restoration, the above figure rose to £2000, and an educational movement began which led to the establishment of elementary schools wherever the population was somewhat dense, the most thinly peopled districts still remaining in absolute ignorance.

At length, M. Guizot, minister of public instruction under Louis Philippe, revived Talleyrand's school-bill. Though a Protestant, he provided a legitimate sphere for the influence of the priest in connection with the schools, and, in short, managed so that even the enemies of the July monarchy could not withhold their approbation of the measure. From considerations of economy, the Chamber of Deputies passed only that part of M. Guizot's school-bill which related to boys' schools; and to this day the girls' schools remain unorganized by law.

The revolution of February created an interval of stagnation and confusion; but, when that was ended by Louis Napoleon's assumption of power, elementary instruction appeared at a higher figure than ever in the budget. Consistently enough, for whereas former governments rested chiefly on the support of the upper and middle classes, that of Louis Napoleon bases itself on universal suffrage, and was therefore especially bound to promote the moral and intellectual, as well as the material interests of the masses. On the one hand, the municipal and provincial authorities have been stimulated to promote the multiplication of schools throughout the country, and the improvement of those already existing; on the other, the annual subsidy, out of the Imperial Treasury, to elementary instruction, has risen to £250,000. How much still remains, however, to be done appears from the fact, that upwards of 10,000 parishes are still without a school-house, and that 600,000 children of the school age are receiving no instruction whatever.

Owing to the alleged precocity of French children, mixed schools of boys and girls are looked upon with disfavour, so much so, that in some instances, the boys are taught in the forenoon by themselves, and the girls in the afternoon by themselves. Yet one-fourth of the elementary public schools are still ordinary mixed schools, taught, the great majority of them, by masters, while only one-fifth are girls' schools,

taught by mistresses. The remainder, amounting to more than both these classes of schools put together, are boys' schools, taught by masters.

The great majority of the male teachers are laymen, but most of the female teachers are nuns; and it is estimated that whereas only one-third of the men in France are educated by ecclesiastics, two-thirds of the women are educated by nuns.

All male teachers, whether lay or clerical, are required to possess a government certificate of competency, and so are the lay schoolmistresses, but not so the teaching-nuns. Accordingly, very few of the latter attempt the ordeal of a government examination at all. Some years ago, out of 12,825 teaching-nuns, only 766 had the government certificate. Yet the lay schoolmistresses cannot compete with the teaching nuns, especially in the country.

First of all, the parish priest naturally prefers a teaching-nun, as being more likely to consult him and work to his hand than a lay schoolmistress. And then a nun, as having no one to provide for but herself, can more easily live, or, sustained by religious zeal, can more contentedly starve on the pittance with which female teaching is remunerated in the country than the lay schoolmistress, who generally has some one depending on her for support, and, at any rate, does not profess to disregard material blessings. The salary of the female teachers in many landward parishes is under £5 a-year, and her total annual emoluments often don't exceed £10. The teaching-nuns would be more widely distributed than they even are, were it not that many orders require their members to live in pairs, and the poorest parishes are not able to support a couple of teaching sisters.

Of the 40,400 nuns in France, 28,860 devote themselves exclusively to the work of instruction, 10,190 combine that with attendance on the sick, while only 6850 confine themselves to prayer and meditation. Every class in society furnishes its quota to the above total; and whilst, of course, the great majority of the teaching-nuns are employed in elementary instruction, others conduct boarding-schools, in some of which young ladies of the middle class, besides receiving solid instruction, are initiated into the mysteries of house-keeping and cookery, while in others, young ladies of the highest rank crown their course of study with the fine arts, and learn the etiquette of fashionable society.

GERMANY.—*School-war in Baden*.—A letter from Loerrach, in Baden, says:—"The *cure* here recently addressed the following language from the pulpit:—'Fathers and mothers—Your most formidable adversary, the devil, is amongst you, and is endeavouring to lead you astray. I refer to the new scholastic law. Watch and pray—religion is in danger. I will shortly tell you more.' Being summoned before the tribunal of police for an abuse of

ecclesiastical authority, the *curé* was condemned to five week's imprisonment and the payment of costs." Notwithstanding clerical opposition, the local school committees are now everywhere constituted and in operation. In some towns, in Heidelberg for instance, where there are two school committees, one Protestant and the other Roman Catholic, these committees have agreed to meet and consult together so often as matters of common concern shall arise for adjustment. The proposal to do so came, it appears, from the Roman Catholic side.

ITALY.—*Then and Now in Naples*.—In the city of Naples, with a population of 550,000, there were, in 1860, only 18 schools for the instruction of the people; in 1868-4, there were 97 boys' schools, with 4684 pupils, and 98 girls' schools, with 5361 pupils. To these must be added three Sunday-schools attended by 2452 children.

CHINA.—*Government Examinations*.—A Hong-Kong letter of 1st November last contains the following:—The examinations for the degree of *tsin-ché*, answering on the whole to our M.A., are just over at Peking, and great will be the anxiety till the lists are published. The single province of Tehé-li

has furnished about a thousand candidates, and only thirty-five of them, it seems, can be successful. These examinations, which recur every three years, last nine days, and are conducted in a large building, that accommodates, in little cells, on the really silent and separate system, upwards of 4000 examiners. The Board of Examiners consists of four imperial commissioners, and eighteen examiners proper, who will have to report on about 60,000 essays, 8000 poems, and 80,000 answers to questions on morals, philosophy, and Chinese history. These questions are drawn up by a great dignitary, who, by way of prevention against all communication with young friends outside, is made to work in the imperial palace, if not also in the imperial presence; and so severe are the laws against collusion between candidates and the superintending authorities, that about ten years ago, a minister of state was publicly beheaded for an act of gross favouritism to one particular candidate. Death is also the penalty for admitting to the degree of *tsin-ché* any one who has been, or whose father was, a tailor, a barber, an actor, a magician, a pander, a bum-bailiff, a porter, a driver, a chiropodist, or the keeper of a gambling-house, these ten employments being reckoned dishonourable in a *man*.

Proceedings of Societies.

[Secretaries are requested to forward short abstracts of their proceedings to the Editor, before the 18th of each Month.]

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.—The monthly meeting of the Council took place on Saturday, 4th February, when the usual routine business was transacted, and various gentlemen engaged in education were elected members of the College. These elections have become more numerous since the restriction rules of admission have been modified. In answer to the inquiries of a correspondent last month, the qualifications of candidates for Fellowship are here inserted.

"The Council is authorized to confer the diploma of Fellow on such life members of the College as, in addition to well-attested high classical or mathematical attainments, possess also unquestionable skill in the theory and practice of education; or have acquired distinction in science, literature, or art; or who shall have passed the required examination. The fee for such diploma shall be five guineas.

"Members who shall have taken up the diploma of licentiate, and shall pass in the first class in mathematics and in the second class in classics, or *vice versa*, and in the second class in two of the following subjects, shall, on payment of five guineas, be entitled to the diploma of Fellow:—(i.) Moral and

Political Philosophy; (ii.) Natural History; (iii.) Chemistry; (iv.) Physiology.

"The names of all persons proposed as Fellows, and the names of their proposers, shall be read at the meeting of Council immediately preceding a half-yearly general meeting, and shall be inserted in every list of *agenda* during the half-year following. The election shall take place at the meeting of Council next preceding the subsequent half-yearly general meeting, provided the candidates have complied with the requirements of the Council.

"No person shall be eligible as a Fellow unless he be recommended by four members of the College, two, at least, of whom shall be members of the Council; nor be elected a Fellow, unless he receive the votes of at least three-fourths of the members of the Council present at the time of election.

"All diplomas shall be signed by the president, or his *locum tenens*, at a meeting of the Council, and by the Dean; and shall be countersigned by the secretary."

On the following Wednesday evening, a paper was read by Mr Siddons, the grandson of the celebrated Mrs Siddons, on the subject of Reading in American

Schools. Dr Hodgson introduced Mr Siddons with the compliment that the lecture would speak for itself, and required no further comment.

Mr Siddons informed his audience that he went to America five years ago, not intending to stay; but liked the people and stayed. He paid a high tribute to the American people, and to the single-mindedness of Mr Lincoln, topics upon which, he believed, the English were inclined to be sometimes jealous and unjust. He then described American Schools, their constitution, and the school-buildings. If we see in England, near a town, a grand architectural building with green lawns sloping down to the boundaries of a park beautified with timber, we know it at once to be a nobleman's seat or a charitable institution. In America you would know such a building to be the public school or educational palace. Despite the disordered finances, it had not obstructed education; there had been distraction, but not of the educational mind. The education is not gratuitous, not a charity, but a charge upon the land-tax—the only tax known by experience before the calamities of war. It was a right of citizenship to education—a right paid for in rents and other forms. The Americans feel a pride in their systems. He had seen the children of wealthy merchants and lawyers sitting side by side of shoeless mates, and competing with enthusiasm for the honours of scholarship. In New York there were private schools likewise; but New York was not to be regarded as America. It was rather a colony of his Irish countrymen, half of whom were Germans. There is in this an aristocracy of feeling amongst many, which hinders them from associating in the public schools. Some of the private schools here are well managed, prosperous institutions with as many as 300 scholars. The private schools had the advantage of giving softness to the manners; so that it was easy to see at a glance, in the case of an American young lady, whether she had been trained in a public or private school. If the lecturer had a free choice to live in any part of the world, he would choose Massachusetts. Quoting from Horace Mann, he said,—Whence comes the wealth of Massachusetts? Because there you find the sanctuary of home; a home enlightened with books, unbounded hospitality; a nation where a beggar is a prodigy, where idleness is disgraceful; knowledge is so wrought and mingled with the fibres of being that none can tell which is nature, which is training; and their intellectual, moral, and religious education is the copious source of all. The question there of a man is not, Who is he? but, What is he?

The exercises at school are gone through with military precision from the reading, as the clock goes nine, of the daily Bible chapter and repetition of the Lord's Prayer, both too formal and without reverence, because ordered by law, to the dismissal at three in the afternoon. Teachers are numerous in the ratio of the population, frequently from sixteen to twenty, with salaries from £40 to £350. The teachers' in-

come is often increased, from the facility of early hours, by private teaching and literary pursuits. The profession is honoured. Few judges, and other eminent men, but have taught in school; with young ladies, even of high families, the competition is keen to become teachers. On the other hand, trustees are often ignorant men, especially in large cities like New York, and bestow their patronage for *douceurs*. The beauty of young ladies has sometimes been the qualification, followed by elopement. Some such trustees were ejected last year for gross cases of favouring superficiality of attainment. If education means profound mathematics and classics, then the American system cannot be so named. College life ends where ours begins. Nevertheless, the laurels bestowed and won in what is significantly called the "commencement," are matters that move the inmost national life. The American youth are passionately fond of recitation, though to English ears their peculiarities are painful, and everything seems against such a taste. They accept Worcester as their authority in orthœpy, and defy him. Their "Readers" and "Recitations," some in two, three, or four thick volumes, are innumerable, and they do greater justice to our writers, though greatly proud, and with reason, of their own, than we do to American authors. We lose by this, for America is before us in poets, taking the last thirty years. Mr Siddons then gave some curious examples of pronunciation. Without exception they accent the first syllable in spite of Worcester, of such words—*Récessa*, *pré-text*, *finances*, and the penultimate of oratory, declamatory, offertory. "My" is always emphatic, as in Othello's speech, where ten *my's* occur in a few lines. For *u*, double *o* is always preferred; as *dooty* for duty. In the following sentence the effect is very graceful:—"As a matter of duty he paid the due to the duke, due to the Jew, and made his adieu before the dew." In conclusion, Mr Siddons regarded their oddities as trifling. Teaching in America ceases to be an irksome task, for the students are intelligent and anxious for knowledge. The bad in American character ought to be put to the account of his own respectable countrymen. He contrasted the Middlesex Sessions where, out of 169 prisoners, 68 could not read nor write, while in Massachusetts not five per cent. could be found so ignorant, and there was nothing like the amount of crime. Ignorance baffles the efforts of legislation. It is the foundation of vice, crime, and drunkenness. The United States is ahead of all the world in education. The lecturer added that his practice had been always before to speak *viva voce*. It was the first paper he ever wrote for reading, but had written it in obedience to rule, though at a sacrifice of effective delivery. As an example of American recitation, Mr Siddons gave Edgar Poe's "Raven," and Mrs Siddons gave the "Bells" of the same writer. The latter, intended to show the capability of modulation of the human voice, was given with wonderful musical effect and

dramatic intensity. The impression was so great that, by a unanimous wish, discussion was omitted, and the assembly listened spell-bound to the reading of the gifted lecturer and his wife, who kindly rendered the "Psalm of Life," "Annabel Lee," the "Charge of the Light Brigade," and "There is a Reaper whose name is Death." In passing, by acclamation, thanks to Mr and Mrs Siddons, it was remarked that words were dumb and dead wood like a violin, till great artists, like those just heard, drew their bow across the instrument, and drew out the thrilling sounds of which it was susceptible.

Dr Hodgson, the chairman, in closing the proceedings, remarked that the impression produced by the readings had made us lose sight of the admirable lecture. He denied that we are jealous of our friends across the Atlantic. We have a notion rather that Americans are distrustful of us. We are proud of our country, satisfied with our government, loyal to our Queen, and, as has been said, every one feels some satisfaction in the misfortunes of his friend, so we perhaps have thought a republic has been tried, and not proved better than the monarchy we love. He regretted the style of opening school in the States. Better by far have no religious exercise, than that the Scriptures and Lord's Prayer should become a mere formula, if not a farce.

BRITISH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The quarterly meeting took place at the Normal College, Borough Road, on the 4th February, J. C. Curtis, Esq., Principal of the College and President of the Association, in the chair. There was a large assemblage of teachers, and the paper read was by Mr Strachan, of Highgate, on the "Metrical System of Weights and Measures: Should we teach it in our schools?" The lecturer, in an able and eloquent paper, advocated the adoption of the metrical system, as one which, if not metrical in the poetic sense, is at all events, symmetrical, plain, and practical. He described with great force the condition of hopeless and helpless difficulty in which France was placed, prior to the revolution, when between forty and fifty measures varying more or less, were used in the department alone of the Somme. The Seigneur's arm and drinking cup, in other parts, became units of length and capacity, so that, if arm or drinking capacity varied, either one way or another, between a five-foot father and six-foot son, it ruined half the traders, and made the fortunes of the rest. The lecturer traced the history of the metre, and why it was chosen, and by means of some beautiful diagrams and objects shewed the relation between the units of all the weights and measures. Our weights and measures are almost as confused as were those of France. With the metric system, we should get rid of all compound rules. Colenso would be reduced one-half; the time now lost in arithmetic could be given to higher branches, which, in elementary schools, children now hardly ever attain. The metric

system ought to form part of the Civil Service Examinations. The Committee of Council ought to enforce it in the schools under Government. Parliament has several times accepted the principle, and last year passed a Permissive Bill to render contracts in this system legal. The lecture gave rise to discussion, commenced by Mr Alfred Jones, supporting the claims of the metric system, as one which, in the balance of advantages and disadvantages, proved the advantages immeasurably to preponderate. A. F. Smith, Esq., B.A., Vice-Principal of the College, claimed for our present system a scientific basis, truer than that of the metre, to wit, the second's pendulum, which has the extra merit of combining the measure of time with the other measures. He also thought the duodecimal system possessed merits over the decimal in the number of divisors twelve will take compared with ten, and pointed out many other directions in which a change of system would lead to grave difficulties. J. Langton, M.A., followed on the same side. Without objecting to the metric system as a system,—thinking, even if we were called upon to choose a system, we could not perhaps choose a better,—yet he believed the difficulties of a change affecting, as it would, our empire in every part of the world, to be insuperable by anything less than a revolution as calamitous as that which originated the system in France. Other gentlemen discussed minor parts of the paper, after which the lecturer replied, and the meeting was brought to a close by the summing up of the President, and by the usual votes of thanks to the lecturer and the chair.

The British Teachers' Association, fostered by the British Committee and officers of the British and Foreign School Society, is one of the only remaining associations of primary teachers in the metropolis. The United Association, the Church Schoolmasters' Association, Elementary Teachers' Association, and others, had their vitality absorbed in the Revised Code struggle, and have been at least in abeyance ever since. Still we imagine both the constitution of these useful societies and the public spirit of our London schoolmasters, to contain enough of the phoenix principle to resuscitate the pleasant *re-unions* of yore.

KIRKCALDY BRANCH OF THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE.—A quarterly meeting of the Educational Institute (Kirkcaldy branch) was held in the Burgh School here on Saturday the 28th ult.—Mr Forbes of Kinghorn in the chair.

The opinions of the members regarding national education were laid before Mr Hunter, of Buckhaven, one of those delegated by the teachers of Fife and Kinross to represent them before the Royal Commission on education at present sitting in Edinburgh. With regard to that provision of the late Parochial Schools Act removing the tests designed to open up the Parish Schools to Protestant dissenters, the meeting was generally of opinion that it was a dead letter. Although it could not be denied

that dissenting teachers were as well qualified as others for the conducting of schools, scarcely any of them had been appointed to parish schools, and of those few it was only at the sacrifice of their principles, and joining the Establishment, that they got such appointments. And this would continue to be the case so long as the heritors put all power in such matters into the hands of the parochial clergy, and so long as all applications had to be made to the parish minister. One or two of the teachers present could have got parish schools if they had been inclined to join the Establishment.

Those of the Dissenting teachers who were present at the meeting did not, however, wish to meddle

with the present parochial schools in any way, but would desire to see their Parochial brethren enjoy the full advantage of the position they now enjoyed, and to see all their liberties and emoluments still greater. They thought it right, however, that they should be put upon an equal footing with them in all respects. But they would prefer the present denominational system even to a national system, if the management was to be the same as that of the present parish schools.

[We are compelled for want of space to omit a notice of the proceedings of the Arbroath Local Association.]

The Month.

THE CONSCIENCE CLAUSE.—The letter, the title of which we give below,* exhibits the most satisfactory reasons which can be assigned for objections to the Conscience Clause. Mr Seymour states his case with clearness and with gentlemanly frankness. We extract the principal portion:—

"The two following forms of the Conscience Clause have been issued by the council office, and from them may be gathered what the demands of that office are upon the promoters and managers of church schools on behalf of dissenters.

"*First Form.*—'And it is hereby further declared, that it shall be a fundamental regulation and practice of the said school that the Bible be daily read therein, and that no child shall be required to learn any catechism or other religious formulary, or to attend any Sunday-school or place of worship to which respectively his or her parent or guardian shall on religious grounds object; but the selection of such Sunday-school and place of worship shall in all cases be left to the free choice of such parent or guardian, without the child's thereby incurring any loss of the benefits and privileges of the school, the trusts whereof are hereby declared.'

"*Second Form.*—'The said Committee shall be bound to make such orders as shall provide for admitting to the benefits of the school the children of parents not in communion with the *Church of England, as by law established*; but such orders shall be confined to the exemption of such children, if their parents desire it, from attendance at the public worship, and from instruction in the doctrine or formularies, of the said church, and

shall not otherwise interfere with the religious teaching of the scholars *as fixed by these presents*, and shall not authorise any other religious instruction to be given to the school.'

"In requiring the church to assert either of these clauses in the trust-deeds of all her new schools, —i. e. in parishes where there is no room for a second school, which is the case of by far the largest number of the parishes of England,—dissenting parents (or rather the Privy Council on their behalf) approach us thus:—We desire to send our children to your school, but before we do so, you must promise us, 1st, that you will not insist on their going to church; 2ndly, that they shall not learn the church catechism; and 3rdly, that they shall not be instructed in those parts of the doctrine of the church, which we their parents do not hold. Such appear to be the plain requirements of this Conscience Clause. I, as a clergyman, ask myself, am I at liberty to give that pledge? I think not, and for two reasons: for, in the *first* place, it is contrary, as I understand it, to my ordination vow. Every deacon, before he is ordained to the office of priest, is asked by the bishop,—

"'Will you be ready, with all faithful diligence, to banish and drive away all erroneous and strange doctrines contrary to God's word; and to use both public and private monitions and exhortations, as well to the sick as to the whole, within your cures, as need shall require, and occasion shall be given?'

"*Answer.* I will, the Lord being my helper.'

"With this vow upon me, 'to drive away all erroneous and strange doctrines contrary to God's word . . . as occasion shall be given,' the Privy Council says to me, We require you, as the condition on which alone we will give aid out of the Parliamentary grant for education, to take

* The Conscience Clause. A Letter in reply to the Rev. David Melville, Rector of Witley, and Hon. Canon of Worcester, &c. By the Rev. Richard Seymour, Rector of Kinwarton, Hon. Canon of Worcester, and Proctor in Convocation for the diocese of Worcester. London: Rivington's. 1866.

another vow, viz. this:—That when in your schools occasion is given you to drive away erroneous doctrine contrary to God's word, you will not take advantage of it; you must promise that if the child of a papist, or of a Roman Catholic, or of a Unitarian, comes to your school, and stays,—say from eight to fourteen years of age,—the child shall not during all that time be taught any thing which shall unteach or weaken the erroneous faith in which the parents desire to bring the child up. I ask, are these two vows compatible? May we, the clergy, with our ordination vow upon us, make this pledge which is thus presented to us? If we may, then I ask, What other pledge to *restrain* and *limit* our teaching are we not at liberty to take? and then what becomes of our ordination vow?"

We differ with Mr Seymour entirely in his interpretation of his ordination vow. There are two points in it which deserve special attention. The first is, that he is to banish and drive away all erroneous and strange doctrines contrary to God's word. This, we should think, means, not that he is to employ force to expel persons holding these doctrines from his parish, but that he is to employ spiritual force, arguments, the influence of his character, and his abounding charity, to drive the belief of these doctrines out of the minds of his parishioners. Now, it is essential, if arguments and character are to have influence in any matter whatsoever, and most of all in the highest of all subjects, religion, that the person on whom the influence is to be exercised be not compelled to listen to the arguments, and be not forced into the sphere of the influence. If the person is so forced, then the best arguments are often utterly useless, and there is every probability that a strong dislike to the doctrines which are forced on the individual will characterise him through life. Let us take an instance from the case before us. A child of a dissenter is sent to a school where the special doctrines of the Church of England are taught. The dissenter sends his child because he wishes him to have a good education. He would rather have his child not taught the peculiar doctrines of the Church of England; but he is informed that the other portion of his education cannot be given except on this condition. The child then listens to the peculiar doctrines in the school. He goes home after this, and his parents take the utmost care to impress on him that all this learning of the catechism is a mere sham, that they do not wish him to learn it, but in present circumstances they cannot help the matter; that a great number of the doctrines taught are the pure inventions of man, and that the sooner he forgets them

the better for him. Will teaching the peculiar doctrines of the Church of England in such circumstances banish and drive away erroneous and strange doctrines? On the contrary, we maintain that it must confirm the dissenters in their dissent, and add to their opinions a bitterness which they might not otherwise have possessed. So far, then, is the conscience clause from being opposed to the ordination vow, that we think it is, in the circumstances, the only right way to carry out that vow. The only possible way of spiritually driving out erroneous opinions is by gaining the affections of the persons in error, and inducing them to listen to the truth, and to yield themselves up to its power.

The second point in the vow is, to use both public and private monitions and exhortations as need shall require, and occasion shall be given. Here there is no reference at all to the instruction of children. If the clergyman wishes to perform this duty, he should go to the parents of the children and discuss their errors with them in a Christian spirit. Admonition or exhortation to the children on the errors of their parents is entirely out of place; and, certainly, the opportunity of communicating instruction in the common branches of education should not be made the occasion of insinuating into children's minds that their parents, though very good and kind to them, are given to erroneous and strange doctrines.

The second difficulty which Mr Seymour feels in regard to the clause, arises from what he considers the impracticable nature of the restrictions laid on the religious teaching. This difficulty, however, never occurs in actual fact. Mr Seymour has summoned up a host of such difficulties, but not one of them is found to be a reality in the Irish schools, where the Conscience Clause in another shape has long been in use; or in the Scottish schools, where utmost liberty is allowed the parents.

In one word, we cannot help thinking that Mr Seymour and other clergymen who oppose the Conscience Clause are doing real injury to the Church of England, though they are certainly very far from meaning it. The Church of England has vast attractions. Its arms are wide enough to embrace, within its lay membership at least, men who are Unitarians, Baptists, borderers on Roman Catholicism, and every objectionable form of opinion which Mr Seymour has vowed to banish and drive away. And it has only to be as liberal in its conduct as it is in its opinions, to gather into its fold vast numbers who hate intolerance of every kind.

